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Languages and a Liberal Education*

LADIES and gentlemen, in the presence of all these linguists you will forgive me for feeling a little tongue-tied. I live just about full time within the vulgar tongue; my job is very largely that of teaching others to use their native language more clearly and intelligibly. You may be sure that there are times when the mastery of their own native tongue seems to be as much as many a student can take—sometimes *more* than they can take. And here are you people intrepidly leading students on toward mastery of a second, a third, even a fourth language. You will understand my awe at such courage—and you will not expect me to be at ease in Babel.

Indeed the only claim I can make for being with you here is that last refuge of the uninformed—objectivity. I can look out on you all, each embroiled in your own particular lingo—Slav and Teutonic, romance and unromantic—and say, aha! There you are! At least *I* have no *parti pris* on the subject of foreign languages and foreign language teaching. I can be *objective*. And it is on this precarious pinnacle that I balance, and from which I speak to you today.

Somehow, on this exalted perch, I sit where a number of academic cross-winds blow. In visiting schools and colleges here and there in the East, I have heard much theorizing and philosophizing, much wrangling and some rancor, on the subject of how and why foreign languages should be taught. I have met the dean who felt it a cardinal academic sin to allow a student to begin the study of more than one foreign language during his four years in college. I have met another dean who sees red if a student in her college begins the study of a foreign language and then drops it after two years. (I gather that in Cleveland you have such things as 12-year courses in language study; perhaps you would see red too.) I have met the admissions officer who wishes our liberal arts colleges were rid of the whole illiberal business of elementary-language teaching—such sordid drill-work should be gotten over and done with in the schools. And I have met the foreign-lan-

guage teacher turned sociologist in despair.

What does a mind that wants to be objective—indeed that doesn't know enough to be anything but objective—make of all this heated theorizing? Where does the notion come from that there is something *illiberal* somewhere in the study of a foreign language? *Is* the study of a new grammar and syntax, or new phonemes and morphemes—however you go at it—is this indeed a non-cultural affair? What *is* the proper place of foreign-language study in a liberal education in America today? These are the questions I have tried to get the answers to; and, with your forbearance, these are the questions I will try to answer in these few minutes here today.

Let us start with the easy one; let's start with the student who has mastered a foreign language quite thoroughly, however he came by that mastery. He can understand it, speak it, read it, write it—can think in the language without perpetual mental translation. This student I think is completely in the clear; no one will doubt or question that he is a more liberally educated person by virtue of his linguistic accomplishment. We all welcome him. We admire his facility and his poise; for my part, I envy his easy, unhesitating access to a whole new cultural environment. I value him for the completely fresh and distinct dimension he has achieved in understanding matters literary, social, linguistic, international. This student, I suspect, is a favored customer with us all; we all regard him as being a richer, more aware, more liberally educated person than he would be without his command of a second language. The schools want him, colleges want him, the government wants him, the teaching profession wants him, business wants him, and—though this may seem no particular distinction in our day and age—the army wants him.

No, the controversies over the cultural value

* Paper read at the meeting of the Modern Language Division of the North Eastern Ohio Teachers Association in Cleveland, October 25, 1957.

of foreign-language study do not center here, on this fair-haired boy who has made it, who *has* mastered a given language. The controversies center on the *beginning* study of a language, especially on the first two years of study. Here the big guns are brought up against us. A girl comes out of the classroom muttering over and over to herself, "*aus, ausser, bei, mit, nach, seit, von, zu*"; from another comes a lad with wrinkled brow repeating "*aider à, demander de; aider à, demander de.*" And you call this *culture*? Or picture the same students sitting with earphones on their heads, watching two discs go 'round: "*heute, heute; morgen, morgen; demeurer, demeurer; je demeure, je demeure.*" If this is a liberal education, then there are a lot of liberally educated parrots in this country, for they have been taught to speak by much the same methods.

At least so the argument goes. The beginning study of a foreign language is thought to be very largely a mechanical business, bewilderingly involved in grammatical rules and their exceptions, cluttered with paradigms and syntactical patterns which most natives of the language itself are not conscious of. Or it is thought of as largely vocal-chord therapy, whereas a true liberal education should center its attention somewhat above the voice-box. And perhaps there are some objections here which must be sustained.

We are told of the man who visited New York to stay for a few days with a camera-fiend friend who lived there. And one afternoon the cameraman came back to the apartment in great excitement. "You should have seen what I just saw over on the East Side," he said. "There was an old woman there on the sidewalk, dressed up in nothing but rags, and hobbling along there on the sidewalk. All stooped over and scrawny and desperate-looking, and hobbling along with this little tin cup in her hand, begging along the sidewalk." "So what did you give her?" asked the visitor. "Well, I had to think fast. I gave her f. 4.5 at 1/150."

We recognize the symptoms, the tendency of any science, diligently pursued, to retreat into its own technique and methodology. I remember in my study of Old French our eminent professor, also old, was leading us through *Aucassin et Nicolette*. He questioned the editor's

version of one word in our text. The letter *p* simply did not behave that way after another consonant—he was sure that any of us who made a study of the matter would find it so. But, he said—and his voice did literally quaver as he looked out at us over his spectacles—"Nobody cares about post-consonantal *p* in early 12th-century Provençal any more." The time was March 1939. Hitler had just marched into Bohemia and Moravia. The percentage of the human race who cared about post-consonantal *p* in early 12th-century Provençal was at a minimum. In Washington, General Hershey's hands were in the goldfish bowl; his fingers were nudging dangerously close to a capsule with my number in it. And I must confess that my own eye was on the capsule, not on the Provençal post-consonantal *p*.

This, I take it, is the general nature of the protest against elementary-language study in a liberal curriculum. It is barren, and too exclusively methodological. It takes no notice of the larger concerns of thinking human beings. The world is full of big and wonderful and interesting things, and the study of vowel-sounds and word-lists, conjugations and declensions, appears to avoid them all.

Let me say flatly now that philosophically these objections to the study of vocabulary, grammar, and syntax appears to me utterly untenable. I do believe that no one who looks calmly and thoughtfully at what we know about language and the learning of languages can regard even the first stages of learning a new language as a mechanical, illiberal matter. Words and patterns of words are subtly vital to every phase of human thought—psychologists are every day revealing how vital the relationship is between thought and language. There is mounting evidence that the study of a foreign language does in fact quicken a student's entire intellectual activity, and increases his grasp of other studies he undertakes. Philosophically, the work of linguistic scientists like Benjamin Whorf makes it perfectly apparent that language does much to predetermine our understanding of the world around us, and that the more languages we understand the more sensitive we can become to the complex variety of that world. Monolingualism is coming more and more to appear to thinking men

as a form of cultural solitary confinement.

I believe, then, that critics who commend the student who has mastered a foreign language and condemn the beginner are in fact seated squarely on the horns of a dilemma. They cannot have their case both ways. The student who has mastered a foreign language did not stumble suddenly on his mastery, did not awake one morning to find himself cultured. What he has gained in conscious knowledge and intuitive perception of a new way of looking at the world he has gained slowly and cumulatively, with ups and downs perhaps, in a process that began with the very first day of his study of the language. Philosophically, I am convinced, one must conclude that every stage of learning a foreign language is rightfully and entirely of the essence of a liberal education. It performs *par excellence* the primary liberalizing function of opening the student's mind to a fuller and more sensitive awareness of the spiritual, cultural, and material world in which he lives.

Still a difficulty remains. I am perturbed over that little girl and her "*aus, ausser, bei, mit, nach, seit, von, zu.*" I am perturbed over students I have known for whom beginning language study has appeared wholly a matter of rote memory. I am perturbed at one graduate student I remember—namely, me—walking the streets, riding the subways, with a key-ring in hand on which there were cardboard tags each with an Old Norse word on the front and an English translation on the back—flipping, flipping, flipping these cards, hoping at least some of them would remain in visual recall. It is clear that, viewed philosophically, these are all tricks and stages in a valuable, expanding experience—but few of our students, at their stage of life, are philosophers.

Here I believe is the rub. A course of study that is philosophically sound and coherent may yet have to be tempered in the classroom to accord with the student's stage of development. A Leonard Bloomfield, an Edward Sapir, or a Benjamin Whorf can thoroughly convince me that the languages we speak do deeply color the nature of our experience as human beings. They can maintain—and I fully believe them—that linguistic science offers us by far the most revealing access to understanding the nature of human thought. But it does not then follow

that we must go forth and teach linguistic science full time to our school and college students. They are not ready, even at the advanced college level, for a steady course of such abstract intellectual analysis. Their primary motives in intellectual inquiry are too impatient, too personal and practical, for such a course. From what little I know of the new general language courses, they seem to me to run much the same danger, of dealing in abstractions which philosophically are intensely meaningful, before an audience for which such abstractions have no vital meaning.

As a teacher I think there are two primary pedagogical principles to be kept in mind in planning the introductory years of study of a foreign language. These I offer with the utmost humility—being nowhere more conscious of the precariousness of my pinnacle of objectivity than here.

1. One is the principle of respect for the student's center of interest. The student we get in our schools and colleges these days is a good deal concerned with people and with the society around him. My impression is that he grows up faster than he used to. Certainly he appears to; he has a passion to be worldly-wise. Let us not feed this gentleman or this lady a steady dose of vocabulary and paradigms. The trend of beginning language courses to concern themselves with the culture of the country whose language is being studied appears to me a highly commendable one. I do hope that the teaching of a foreign culture will never become the primary concern of the language teacher. You are not, presumably, by either training or dedication, teachers of the history, politics, economics, and sociology of France, Spain, Italy, or Germany as the case may be. You are teachers of *language*. But your skill in detecting and encouraging your students' most eager intellectual interests in life has much to do with your developing in them an eager desire to learn a foreign language. Through your sensitivity to his center of interest—be it social, political, or literary—you can largely command his realization of the

importance of mastering the language you are studying.

2. The second pedagogical principle I would appeal to in planning the beginning language course is one I have not heard discussed much in educational circles—the principle of *pace*. I believe that a student at every stage in the formal educational process demands a sense that he is “getting somewhere,” and making some visible progress. His demand may not always be reasonable. Some types of study show results much more quickly and dramatically than others—and quick results, as we all know, may often be superficial or illusory. To learn a new foreign language thoroughly is, I take it, one of the most arduous of educational disciplines, requiring unrelenting application and repeated practice. When I suggest that nevertheless a sense of *pace*, of “going somewhere,” be somehow communicated in the course, I do not mean shortcuts in this arduous regime. I mean rather that there may be a particular need in the beginning language course for variety in teaching method, for occasional shifts of *venue*, and for variation in the type of materials used.

An example from my own field of English literature may help. I am sure that one might plan out a very logical semester's course which would deal with just one poem of John Keats, say the “Ode to a Nightingale,” and would study it with utter thoroughness. Certainly there is ample food for thought and aesthetic growth for a half a year's study in that poem. But, because such a course would ignore the principle of *pace*, I think it would be best to scrap the idea. Such a course would inevitably communicate to the student some feeling that he has been marking time, some frustration at having not had a chance to range around at least in Keats's other poems to gain a larger perspective on his specialized study.

How this principle applies in detail—or if it does—to foreign language teaching, you will

know much better than I. I mention it only because I frequently meet students who are impressed and depressed by an over-riding sense of repetition, repetition, repetition in their beginning language courses. Perhaps the known effectiveness of the concentrated full-time language course is in part attributable to the exhilarating feeling of *pace*, of “getting somewhere,” which steady, daily application makes possible. Under the handicap of the normal three-, four-, or five-hours-a-week pattern of the school or college course, the problem is far more difficult to solve. But I do believe that it must be solved, and that variety and a sense of *pace* should be introduced into the course by every trick or inspiration you have at your command.

You will see now to what answers my opening questions have led me. When people tell me now that the first two years of foreign language study are not a liberalizing discipline and have no place in the core of a liberal education. I simply do not believe it. Language is no mere inert, mechanical tool of communication; it is intimately woven into our ways and shades of thinking and feeling. The student on his way toward mastery of a foreign language is not simply marking time until the dawn breaks and he can march off and conquer new worlds on his own. His study of a foreign language is from the very start a gradual and continuing process of illumination.

At the same time in the classroom it is not easy to make it apparent to the student that this is so. The intellectual and psychological rewards of learning a new language are subtle and may seem vague and intangible to the beginning student—may even seem non-existent to him. By an unfortunate paradox the student is best equipped to learn a new language early in life, and yet able fully to appreciate the rewards of mastery only later on. For this reason I regard the introductory years of the teaching of foreign languages as fair ground for inspired experimentation. The language laboratories that are coming more and more widely into use seem to me of great value. The language-teaching machines which Professor Skinner is developing at Harvard may also perform a distinct and valuable service in that they attack directly and effectively the ele-

ments in language-learning which demand the fixing of certain responses indelibly in the memory. And obviously one of the most effective means of breaking into a foreign language, when this means is available, is a period of study in the foreign country itself, whether during the school years or in the junior year at college.

Above all, I am struck, and excited, and convinced by the teaching that is now being done in the elementary grades. This seems to me at last the best solution to the special difficulties which attend the beginning years of studying a foreign language. I fully intend to do all I can to see that my children get immersed in some significant foreign language early in their lives. When you think what little mimics, what sponges they are when there is an unusual accent or intonation around! Young as they are, my children have succeeded in sopping up bits of B.B.C. English, Acadian French, nasal Bostonese, and flat Philadelphian. What a tragedy if they don't also pick up the impress of some major foreign language, if they should settle down, after this fresh, bubbling period of exuberant awareness of every sound and inflection around them, into the shuttered confines of a cloistered monolingualism!

For of the importance of the work which you people are doing I have no doubts whatsoever. A democracy is nothing if its people are not sensitive and aware. To count the votes of a dull, habit-bound, insensitive population would be a guarantee of getting the wrong answer every time. And surely the sensitivity America most needs now is sensitivity to the thoughts and values, the culture of other peoples. We have not an oversupply of that sensitivity at the moment. Many of you have lived or travelled abroad, and you know with dismay what the typical American abroad can look like.

I met not long ago my first real Texas oil

man—possibly my last. He had quit work twenty years ago and taken to travel. He had been everywhere. From his leather satchel he produced the newspaper clippings which had announced his arrival in every quarter of the globe. He showed me the correct camera shutter-speed for photographing a running antelope. From a packet of waxed paper he produced a clove from Zanzibar; from another, a Guatemalan coffee-bean, on which he asked me to chew. And as I chewed, he said, "Travel, my son. This is America's age to travel, when we are on top and everybody knows it." You have seen the type, and you know how deeply it offends our friends of other nations. It is Mark Twain with a difference; we are not innocents, but arrogance abroad.

How easy it is to stay, physically, intellectually, and spiritually, within our native borders—and then, little by little, since habits will make servants of us all, to come to regard our borders as the limits of the universe, and our way of thinking, and living, and speaking as the *only* way! Until we reach at last that scarcely believable apotheosis which Professor William Parker tells us as a fact, of the superintendent of schools in the South who ended a peroration on monolingualism with the words, "If the English language was good enough for Jesus Christ, it's good enough for me."

From this darkness you people can do much to lead us forth. More than any other group engaged in educating the generation of Americans who will lead us tomorrow, you stand at the windows of our culture. You are the ones who can most directly let in the light—that "More light!" which is as desperately needed here and now as it ever was when Goethe cried out for it in Weimar over a hundred years ago.

JOHN A. LESTER, JR.

Haverford College

* * *

Some people seem to learn languages better than others, just as some students learn mathematics more readily than do others. Even so, there doesn't seem to be any easy road to the mastery of another language. It requires interest, diligence and practice.

—ROGER HAGANS

* * *

Educating the Talented Secondary School Pupil in Modern Languages

Academically talented youth may be defined as "all of those boys and girls who have the ability to study effectively and rewardingly advanced mathematics, foreign languages, and tough courses in chemistry and physics." This is a far larger group than the two per cent of the high school population usually labelled as the "gifted." In a typical comprehensive high school about 15 or 20 per cent of the pupils would be academically talented; in some schools as many as 50 per cent of the students may fall into this category; and in certain selective high schools more than 90 per cent would be academically talented.

From this group will come nearly all of our future intellectual and professional leaders—educators, jurists, scientists, scholars, etc., but very little attention has been given to suitable programs of study for these children in our schools. The National Education Association called an invitational Conference on the Academically Talented Pupil in the American Secondary School (6-8 February 1958) under the chairmanship of Dr. James B. Conant, President Emeritus of Harvard, former Ambassador to the Federal Republic of Germany, and Director, A Study of the American High School. About 200 scholars, including teachers, administrators, and researchers, participated in this work conference.

The major work of the conference was accomplished in discussion groups concerned with the specific problems of English, Mathematics, Modern Foreign Languages, Science, Social Studies, and Guidance. The reports of these groups, together with other pertinent information, will soon be widely published throughout the education world.

Every teacher of modern foreign languages should study this Conference Report closely. For it is a highly important document, strong in tone and modern in the nature of its recommendations. Like the other subject matter reports of this conference, it reflects the concern of conscientious educators for strengthening the fiber of American education. If the high school language program is to be improved, language teachers will have to do their part. They should understand thoroughly everything in the Conference Report. They should be able to discuss its recommendations intelligently and have suggestions for implementing the recommendations locally.

A. Languages for Leaders.—The academically talented pupil will be a leader in tomorrow's world. Some experience with and some degree of skill in using a modern foreign language are an *indispensable* element in the education of our national leaders. The international responsibilities of this country make it imperative that at

least our academically talented have a reasonable proficiency in the use of at least one modern foreign language.

The academically talented pupil should be given every opportunity, and should be strongly urged by effective guidance counselling, to study a modern foreign language until he attains a certain degree of mastery. Not merely because the pupil will probably be college-oriented and will have to satisfy college entrance and degree requirements, but chiefly because of the demands of the modern world, this group even believes (with two dissenting out of 21) that the study of a modern foreign language should be *required* of every academically talented pupil.

B. Four-year Sequence.—The two-year program of language study usually followed, and to which many pupils are limited, is not sufficient to impart this proficiency. Much more time is needed. A minimum continuous sequence of *four* full years in high school, or its equivalent, is necessary in order to achieve the desired results. It may even be more effective to spread the equivalent study over a six-year sequence. Individual differences and conditions of study may shorten or lengthen the requisite time; for the goal is achievement. The pupil should not dabble in language study. A program of two years in each of two languages is definitely not to be recommended. In general, a four-year sequence of study in grades nine to twelve, or its equivalent in achievement, in one modern foreign language, is the least that should be expected of the academically talented pupil.

C. Begin Early.—Since language study is best begun very early, the academically talented pupil should have an opportunity to begin a modern foreign language in the elementary school, whenever the proper conditions for such study exist and qualified instruction is available. At this age the pupil learns language automatically as behavior, and not as a rational

process. Such programs offer rich possibilities for the future of modern language study.

It is evident that the study of a foreign language in the elementary school must be closely articulated with further study in the junior and senior high school so that there is no break in the sequence and so that pupils can progress regularly. Beginners must not enter the unit at a later point. It must have separate treatment to its completion.

Properly qualified teachers of languages in the grades are now in short supply. All possible sources are not now being utilized, however, such as native speakers in this country or exchange teachers from abroad who could receive supplemental training and function well under supervision.

D. Every High School.—We note that 56% of the public high schools in the United States do not offer *any* modern foreign language. Many academically talented pupils are thus deprived of the opportunity of acquiring a modern foreign language. To remedy this shocking situation, we recommend that as quickly as possible every public high school in the country offer at least one modern foreign language.

E. Russian.—It is a matter of great national urgency that more Americans know Russian. It is therefore strongly recommended that as fast as possible, when proper conditions exist and adequate instruction can be made available, the study of Russian be introduced in the public high schools of the country. Such study when begun should be carried to a point of reasonable proficiency, and suitable opportunities provided therefore, especially for the academically talented pupil.

In order to measure up to the responsibilities of world leadership, many more of the world's common languages must be taught in this country. The academically talented pupil, while beginning his language study with a West European language, should be conditioned to the idea of possible later study in the languages of the Near East, India, China, Japan and central Africa. Some of these languages should even now be added to the curriculum of the public high school wherever feasible.

F. Begin Orally.—In beginning a foreign lan-

guage the academically talented pupil should concentrate at first upon learning to *hear* and *speak*. Interest and motivation are thus increased. Attention should be given to acquiring a correct accent. Learning to *read* a foreign language, the third phase of the hearing—speaking—reading—writing progression is a necessary step in the total process. The goal in this step should be reading with understanding and without conscious translation.

G. The Teacher.—The teacher of an academically talented pupil should himself be academically talented insofar as is possible. He should also have a superior preparation in his field. The Modern Language Association has set forth the qualifications of secondary school teachers of modern foreign languages in a statement endorsed by 18 organizations of modern language teachers. These recommended qualifications at the superior level include: near-native ability in understanding and speaking the foreign language; the ability to read difficult material almost as easily as English, and to write the foreign language with ease and naturalness; an enlightened understanding of the foreign people and their culture, augmented by residence abroad; a mastery of teaching methods and techniques, including the contributions of linguistic science. These qualifications constitute the goal toward which every language teacher should work as rapidly as possible, through study, in-service training, attendance at summer schools, and foreign travel. Scholarships and other subsidies should be provided to enable them to do so.

The professional preparation of the language teacher must be on the same high level; and the support of teacher-training institutions is earnestly sought to this end. The improvement of teacher preparation for modern languages will require close collaboration between modern language people and those in professional education.

The teacher of the academically talented should also increase his competence by using the resources provided by his professional organizations, both in the field of professional education and in the modern languages. During the last six years the Foreign Language Program of The Modern Language Association has assembled many important aids and directives.

H. Equipment.—Modern invention has created a large number and variety of mechanical aids which should be used by the academically talented to increase motivation and to accelerate progress, in connection with both class work and individual study. The language laboratory with tape recordings and disc records, the radio and television, realia and illustrative material of all kinds, instructional films, kinescopes, and film strips, are among these possibilities. Further research and experimentation are necessary to determine effective techniques for their optimum use. Care must be taken to integrate them well with the class work and the textbook. We recommend further conferences on these problems, and instruction for teachers in the use of such mechanical aids.

I. Teaching Materials.—The new emphasis on hearing and speaking in the learning of a language makes necessary a thorough re-examination and revision of basic textbooks with a view to de-emphasizing formal grammar and translation in the early stages of language learning, and to including properly integrated oral and audio-visual materials.

We urge the development of reading materials in the foreign language, suitably and attractively presented, which will give full scope to the interests, maturity and linguistic achievement of the academically gifted student.

Teachers of talented students who are able and willing to conduct experimentation and research in language teaching and learning should be encouraged to pursue such essential work by being given released time in order to develop special programs.

J. Special Groups.—Whenever possible under local conditions, it is highly desirable to create a special group or groups of students particularly talented for language study. The methods and materials used in this special group should be different in order to facilitate better quality of results, greater depth and enrichment, more flexibility, and added individual responsibility. At the advanced level, students who show high potential should have an opportunity to follow special study plans which may be similar to the Advanced Placement Program. We do not favor multi-track organization of all language students, as we see dangers in too much stratifica-

tion. In small schools where separate sections are not feasible, even then, the talented pupil should be served by encouraging individual initiative and progress.

K. Class Size.—It is an accepted principle that the handicapped pupil is treated in very small groups. We believe that the same concept should be applied to the academically talented pupil, since we seek equality of educational opportunity. It is an admitted fact that the best work in a foreign language cannot be done in very large classes. The able pupil is therefore penalized if the school does not create conditions favorable to his optimum advance. While we are realistically aware of the problems of administration and teacher shortage, this group believes that it is the duty of educational authorities to work effectively toward the ideal condition of handling the talented pupil in groups of from 15 to 20.

L. Additional Experiences.—We recommend that teachers of the academically talented be encouraged to make full and imaginative use of the linguistic and cultural resources in the community for the enrichment of the language program.

A talented pupil studying a modern language should be given frequent opportunity to use the language in other areas of the curriculum, as in his readings in history or the sciences. Such correlation is important, both for motivation and for the integration of the whole curriculum in the student's mind. Talented students may also be encouraged to take advantage of special opportunities for language study and practice outside of their own school. Some summer schools offer scholarships to the gifted. Some nearby college may admit them to a class.

Especially in rural areas or in small high schools, high-grade correspondence courses which include recorded materials prepared according to the best procedures may be helpful in giving enriched language practice.

Conclusion. This group believes unanimously that the academically talented pupil in every secondary school in the nation should study a modern foreign language; that he should begin it as early as possible and carry it in an uninterrupted sequence to a point of reasonable mastery, including both speaking and reading

proficiency, equivalent at least to four years of secondary school study. He should be encouraged to progress individually as fast as his ability permits, under superior instruction, and as nearly as possible ideal conditions of study,

correlating this new skill and experience with all other areas of his experience.

Reported by STEPHEN A. FREEMAN

Middlebury College

* * *

The various stages of language, oral and written, we can follow backward to the most primitive speech known to existent man. What we cannot follow is the process that preceded this most rudimentary type. The lowest savages have a real language, a vehicle that belongs to the same category as our own idiom, and not to the category of animal noises. We may guess that the prehistoric ape-man, when he first began to be human at all—assuming that he did evolve from something else—was no better a linguist than the other beasts amid which he lived. According to Professor Jespersen's plausible conjecture, he sang before he spoke. How did he acquire language, and when, and how long did it take him? He surely learned it by a natural method, but what was his Berlitz School? These are questions which we can never answer, save by conjecture.

—CHARLES HALL GRANDGENT

* * *

Communication by means of language is man's distinctive activity. It is news today because of the recent progress made in its analysis. It is news because technology has installed mass media to blanket the planet with words, thus compounding the perils of propaganda, half-truth, and plain loud lies. We need a new literacy for listeners, to help them distinguish between the real and the phony, to help them identify motives, know when to shut their ears, when to turn the damn thing off.

—STUART CHASE

* * *

An Essay in Comparative Vocabulary Study

STUDIES in vocabulary are by no means a new thing, but while the 19th century philologist deposited vast accumulations of knowledge in giant grammars and monster dictionaries, the linguist of the 20th century centers his interest on systematic aspects of language and studies the universal rather than the particular. Modern frequency studies are a case in point.

A dictionary containing all—or a majority of—the words of a given language is undoubtedly a very useful thing by the fact that it enables its user to understand not only one particular speaker of that language but any speaker. But what we should like to emphasize is the fact that the language of a dictionary is an abstraction. No single speaker has all the words of his language at his command, so the vocabulary of the dictionary is a selection and compilation of a number of small languages, with little or no regard paid to the style of those small languages.

Moreover, the number of words common to any given number of small languages is surprisingly small. In a class of 10-year olds, whose total vocabularies as given in their essays written in one school year ranged from 250 to 900, the number of common words was less than 60.¹ And if the 2000 commonest words in a given language make up 90% of its vocabulary, we are certainly not too rash in assuming that each small language contains a certain number of "operators" or structure-words which together with a number of content-words, denoting things and ideas common to a large number of small languages, make up a kind of basic vocabulary. It follows, however, from what has been said that a basic vocabulary is an abstraction as much as the vocabulary of a dictionary, and of little theoretical value.

The language teacher may, however, find it of practical value. His aim is generally that of enabling his pupil to understand and make himself understood to the greatest possible number

of speakers of the language he is teaching, and if the pupil is to acquire a small language of his own—within the foreign language he is learning—it is important that the teacher should help him to select the most useful words for that purpose.

But if the vocabulary of the dictionary as well as a basic vocabulary are both abstractions, the same thing may be said for the total vocabulary of the small language. There is no such thing as a total vocabulary of one particular person. If, for instance, we count the total number of words in Shakespeare's works and find it to be somewhere between 15,000 and 20,000,² these words form a vocabulary covering one particular aspect of the poet's activity in the English language over a period of more than 20 years. Comparing it with a supposed total vocabulary of an agricultural laborer³ of 800 words, makes no sense, if the latter figure has not been arrived at by counting words used in writing over a similar space of time.

Comparisons of vocabularies are only valid for identical activities in language and identical time-lengths. But if this is so, total inventories of individual vocabularies are impossible, or at best valueless. Important information as to the nature and structure of language can, however, be obtained by making comparative inventories for identical activities and time-lengths, such as we find in comparing the vocabularies of written texts of the same length. Such inventories certainly do not aim at finding the total number of words used by any writer, but they can give us an idea of the use of words, not only by a particular writer, but in language as a whole.

In order to show what we mean by a comparative vocabulary study, we chose a short text composed of 2000 running words in the works of Shakespeare, Shaw, Dickens, and Bertrand Russell, chosen in groups of 100 running words each, and here is what we found:

Occurrences	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	More than 10	Total
Shakespeare	559	86	37	19	13	8	4	1	3	3	31	764
Shaw	494	105	35	17	13	5	4	1	3	6	32	713
Dickens	498	94	39	19	11	7	6	7	3	5	22	711
Russell	525	93	36	17	9	4	6	2	2	0	20	714

In **Shakespeare**: 2000 running words with 764 different words, 559 of which appear only once, i.e. 72% of the words occur only once; 31 very common words make up 597 running words or 29% of the text.

In **Shaw**: among 2000 running words we found 713 different words, 494 of which appear only once, i.e. 69% of the words occur only once; 32 very common words make up 771 running words or 38% of the text.

In **Dickens** we found among 2000 running words 711 different words, 498 of which appear only once, i.e. 70% of the words occur only once; 25 very common words make up 706 running words or 35% of the text.

In **Russell** we found among 2000 running words 714 different words, 525 of which appear only once, i.e. 73% of the words occur only once; 20 very common words make up 637 running words or 31% of the text.

And here follow the commonest words with the number of their occurrences:

Shakespeare: the 74, and 47, of 37, a 31, I 31, is 26, that 24, to 22, thou 17, not 17, my 17, his 17, be 17, it 16, well 15, for 15, with 14, this 13, shall 13, in 13, but 13, as 13, you 13, we 12, all 12, by 12, have 12, me 11, no 11, o 11, when 11.

Shaw: the 71, and 50, to 49, a 44, you 41, of 45, he 33, I 36, that 29, with 26, is 26, not 25, his 22, she 22, me 20, in 19, they 18, at 17, my 15, what 14, but 14, him 12, for 12, on 11, be 11, an 11, have 11, are 13, Napoleon 12, Raina 12.

Dickens: the 94, and 59, to 45, of 44, a 40, in 39, I 34, that 33, he 26, was 26, his 25, him 24, it 24, not 21, her 18, they 16, as 16, with 15, is 15, but 14, had 13, an 12, at 11, be 11, who 11.

Russell: the 127, of 81, is 54, and 46, in 43, a 36, it 28, be 26, that 26, are 25, which 22, this 18, all 16, what 15, with 13, one 12, we 12, have 11, only 11, not 9.

If now we compare the number of words of the different occurrences with the total number of words we may find it surprising—not that a very few words make a large part of the text, for this is almost commonplace in frequency counts—but that in all four writers about 70% of the words occur only once.

If next we compare the total number of

words with the number of running words, we shall find that the texts are what we propose to call *dense* texts, by which we mean that new words occur at very short intervals. We may even establish what might be called a density-index, which in Shakespeare would be $1:2000/764=1:2.6$ —to be interpreted as 2.6 running words for each new word. In Shaw the density-index would be $1:2000/713=1:2.7$, in Dickens $1:2.7$, and in Russell $1:2.17$. In all four writers we have to do with texts of very high density, or we might say with a very high density-index.

In passing, it might be interesting to note that Shakespeare's density-index for the excerpts chosen is only slightly higher than the others, which would mean that—given that the four writers frame their works in a uniform style—Shakespeare's vocabulary would by no means be anything out of the ordinary.

This, however, leads us on to the next problem: Will the density-index be the same if we count the total number of running words in all the works of the writers mentioned above? The answer must be that the fact that the four density-indexes differ but slightly, is in itself suspicious and might be due to the briefness of the texts, but that we are not able to give a definite answer until a complete count exists.

Some sort of an answer may, however, be found in A. Noesgaard's Danish frequency count of 10 writers:⁴

	Running Words	Different Words	Density Index
Henrik Pontoppidan	10,070	3,050	1:3.3
Johs. V. Jensen	9,940	2,888	1:3.5
Jeppe Aakjær	10,116	2,869	1:3.5
Johs. Jørgensen	10,049	2,456	1:4.1
Andersen Nexø	10,102	2,445	1:4.2
Th. Gravlund	10,061	2,330	1:4.3
Herman Bang	10,039	2,281	1:4.4
H. Drachmann	9,999	2,066	1:4.4
H. Spilberg	10,133	2,038	1:5.0
Karl Larsen	10,122	1,967	1:5.6

There is no definite proof, but at least a great probability, that a short text gives a higher density-index for the same writer than a long text, a supposition that is further corroborated if these figures are added up. We get, then, 100,631 running words and 12,522 different words, which gives a density-index of 1:8.03—lower than that of any of the individual writers. The same thing might hold good for lengths of texts by the same writer.

An increase in the number of running words seems necessarily to entail an increase in the number of different words, too, which means that if a writer goes on writing, his vocabulary will go on increasing, though by a falling ratio.

The figures indicated by the Danish frequency count throw an interesting light on this. In 1,000,000 running words Noesgaard found 93,078 different words, which gives a density-index of 1:10.7; out of these 73,000 words occurred only once, which means 79% of the words. It would be of great importance to know whether the fact that the ratio of words occurring only once does not go down, is due to the frequency counts being compiled from the works of different writers, or whether the same thing would be the case in a frequency count of one writer, so that a number of texts selected from him would "behave" like texts chosen from different writers; this would most likely be so.

At any rate the most common words would in that case become even more common, and this can be proved to be the case.

We will now look at the results of some of the best-known frequency counts and see whether they corroborate our findings. Here follows a list:

	Running Words	Different Words	Density-Index
1. Business letters ⁵	2,412	665	1:3.6
2. Business letters ⁶	10,834	1,576	1:6.2
3. Clarke (letters) ⁷	28,292	3,360	1:8
4. Farmers' letters ⁸	14,513	1,754	1:8
5. Newspapers ⁹	100,000	10,161	1:9.8
6. Icelandic count ¹⁰	100,277	13,636	1:7
7. Simonsen ¹¹	261,707	23,185	1:11
8. Noesgaard ¹²	1,000,000	ab. 55,000	1:18
9. Käding ¹³	11,000,000	258,173	1:40
10. Thorndike ¹⁴	10,000,000	?	

If the total number of words in Noesgaard's count is given only approximately, it is because we have deducted 40%, made up of inflected forms which he counts as words, from the original 93,078. Unfortunately we have not been able to find the total number of different words in the Thorndike count anywhere.

Other lists might be made up to show the same principle at work. Of course, the density-index of a count will be much lower if like Henmon¹⁵ we reduce our material to a dictionary basis and thus get 400,000 running words and 9187 words, which gives a density-index of 1:43, or if we count less diversified material, *f. inst.* private and personal letters, as Horn¹⁶ did and got 100,000 words and 5239 different words, which gives a density-index of 1:19. Children's writing furthermore would be sure to be much less dense than that of adults, being much more akin to speech. Here are three lists of children's vocabularies:

	Running Words	Different Words	Density-Index
1. Cook and Shea ¹⁷	200,000	5,200	1:38
2. Noesgaard ¹⁸	582,159	ab. 12,000	1:48*
3. Payne Garrison ¹⁹	2,175,000	13,486	1:161†

* 40% deducted from 18,663.

† Names of persons and places.

Children use the most common words much more than adults when they write. But a similar increase in their use would certainly be found in a speech vocabulary count.

We would venture to say on the basis of the results recorded here that a short text gives a high density-index, and that a long text gives a comparatively lower density-index. This means that the greater the number of different words we find, the more extensive the text will have to be, and that this holds good for individuals as well as for languages. This again would mean that the size of a vocabulary would depend on the extent to which it is used. A language spoken by 200 million people would have a greater number of words than one spoken by, say, 2 million people; a man whose job is to write and speak would acquire a greater vocabulary than a man whose job has got little to do with words. We might also express it differently:

If the text of a language is increased, the number of new words in that language is increased proportionately, and new words form as compounds, loans and derivatives. The text of a language cannot be diluted *ad infinitum*. As language functions, it grows.

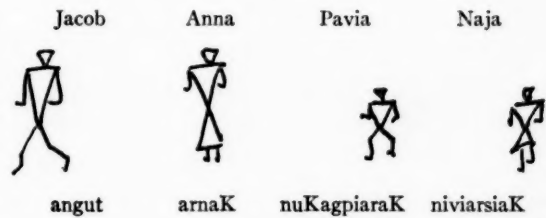
To the ordinary user his language presents itself as a mixture of frequent and rare words, from the intelligibility of which a few occasional unknown words detract little. To the foreign learner this is not so. At an early stage a high density-index means unintelligibility, and a high percentage of words occurring only once impedes the learning process considerably and causes a waste of valuable time.

Here is a frequency count which gives us an impression of how the English language presents itself to a beginner; the count is of four English primers:²⁰

	A	B	C	D
Occurrences				
1	1,071	474	580	632
2	372	196	224	198
3-9	468	349	441	403
10-99 times	169	145	185	186
100+	12	6	13	12
% of words occurring once	51.2	40.5	40.2	44.1
Different words	2,092	1,170	1,443	1,431
Running words	11,679	7,871	11,143	10,610

This means that the density-indexes are respectively 1:5.58, 1:6.73, 1:7.72 and 1:7.41. On an ordinary page of 300 words the learner would find, then, from 40 to 60 new words.

It should be obvious from the above that the new language can be made to present itself to the learner in a similar way to his mother-tongue, if the density-index is sufficiently low, and every new word is introduced in such a way as to be understood from the context—much like the way new words present themselves in one's mother-tongue. The new language could, under such circumstances, be read by the learner in the same matter-of-fact way as his native tongue. Anybody can test this assertion by reading the opening pages of a Nature Method course in a language that is new to him,²¹ or by reading the following text in Greenland Eskimo:



Jacob angutauvoK. Anna arnauvoK. Pavia nukagpiarauvoK. Naja niviarsiauvoK.

Jacob angutauva? âp, Jacob angutauvoK. Anna arnauva? âp, Anna arnauvoK.

Pavia nukagpiarauva? âp, Pavia nukagpiarauvoK. Naja niviarsiauva? âp, Naja niviarsiauvoK. Pavia angutauva? nâgga, Pavia nukagpiarauvoK. Jacob niviarsiauva? nâgga, Jacob angutauvoK. Naja angutauvoK? nâgga, Naja niviarsiauvoK. Pavia neriuvok. Naja neriuvok. Pavia Najalo neriutut.

AAGE SALLING

Holte Gymnasium Holte, Denmark

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The Role of Foreign Language in Training for International Relations

I SHOULD like to point out first that the choice of the topic for this paper* was deliberate. We did not select the subject, "Training for International Understanding," because we in the discipline of International Relations have somewhat of an aversion for that term. We feel that it has become a rather loose expression which is used to label a variety of activities participated in by those who feel a laudable desire to improve the state of world affairs but who have not made a realistic appraisal of the problems involved. I myself am not sure that "understanding" is an intellectual undertaking: Can we really learn anything about a nation from books or from research when we consider, as we must, that there is a vast difference between a nation and a state. Or is "understanding" emotional? If we love alien peoples as our brothers, if we have a personal appreciation of the vagaries of a Nasser or a Nehru, does this necessarily mean a basic comprehension of his role in world affairs? Or does "understanding" mean official understanding? Do our diplomats and other formal representatives abroad have a full comprehension of the geopolitical, economic, and social problems which they face? Finally, is there any real advantage to the people in understanding each other? Do the people have anything to do with the making of foreign policy?

The above questions are not intended to sound cynical. I grant that we need to understand the culture, history, religion, national drives, and intellectual tensions of other nations. The understanding of their language may very well be the best instrumentality to that end. I think it is most important at the outset, however, to say that the learning of a foreign language does not automatically or even desirably create understanding or sympathy for the problems of other peoples. Just to learn the Russian language and to be able to appreciate Russian art, for example, does not explain to us fully why people who do not

want to be aggressive seem to be led today by aggressive leaders. For 250 years the Russians have had a national drive to secure windows on the Baltic. To understand this, however, does not assume that we change our sympathy for the Baltic peoples, whose language we do *not* know.

Let us now look briefly at the international relations for which we are training. And here immediately we may divide our subject into two major categories of personnel. In the first place, there are the more or less official international relations, conducted in the case of the United States by the approximately 6,000 Americans who represent our country abroad. These men and women are officers of the recently integrated American Foreign Service. Most of them are engaged in formal, official representation of American interests. Their duties have been defined by an executive order of the President as follows:

1. To establish and maintain friendly relations between the Government and people of the United States and the government and people of the country to which they are accredited;
2. To keep the Government of the United States informed regarding political and economic developments abroad, particularly those affecting its interests;
3. To extend protection to American citizens and promote just American interests in every proper manner;
4. To interpret faithfully the viewpoint of the American government in any question at issue.

In addition to these Foreign Service Officers, there are thousands of other official representatives of the United States employed by such agencies as the United States Information Agency, the International Cooperation Agency, the Departments of Commerce, Agriculture, Labor, et cetera. One hundred thousand American civilians are working overseas officially in behalf of the national interest. In addition,

* Address presented to the Research Council of the Modern Language Association of Southern California, March 16, 1957, at the University of California, Los Angeles.

there are the anonymous staff members of our intelligence organizations, the Central Intelligence and National Security Agencies, and others. Finally, there are military representatives, officers and men, more than a million of them, stationed in almost every country of the free world.

The second category of international relations personnel includes all of those thousands of Americans whose conduct abroad as business representatives or as tourists affects our international position, and the rest of us whose behavior at home is known through twentieth century communications to readers and listeners on both sides of the Iron and Bamboo Curtains. One of the significant phenomena of our time has been not only the rise in importance of the private citizen in the formulation and implementation of foreign policy, but, more important, the recognition of this fact by government. As former Assistant Secretary of State, George V. Allen, said in testimony before the House of Representatives Appropriation Committee:

Until a few years ago, governments normally conducted their foreign relations exclusively with other governments. They wrote diplomatic notes and expressed their governments' policies to foreign officials. Any direct appeal to foreign peoples over the heads of their governments was generally castigated as improper interference in the affairs of a foreign country and was resorted to only on rare occasions, usually when formal diplomatic relations had already been ruptured. . . . The former custom of limiting the relations between two peoples to the exchange of formal diplomatic notes has passed out of the window—and it should stay out. We have entered a new era in foreign relations, infinitely broader than the era of traditional diplomacy.

The United States was somewhat slow to adjust to this new era. The unfortunate results of Woodrow Wilson's effort to go over the head of Premier Vittorio Orlando in his 1919 appeal to the Italian people impressed us deeply. And the wave of isolationism and pacifism which swept the United States under the leadership of Senator Gerald P. Nye and his cohorts delayed a development here that was already in full course in France, Great Britain, Germany, and the Soviet Union. It remained in part for the leadership of Franklin Delano Roosevelt to bring us to the realization which he expressed in the speech that he wrote the night before his death:

Today, science has brought all of the different quarters of the globe so close together that it is impossible to isolate them one from another. Today, we are faced with the pre-eminent fact that, if civilization is to survive, we must cultivate the science of human relationships—the ability of all peoples, of all kinds, to live together and work together in the same world, at peace.

Since the end of the Roosevelt era, I believe that a larger segment of the population has come to recognize the urgency of language training for United States representation abroad. We are increasingly aware of the United States' role as leader of the Free World, particularly with reference to the new importance of such areas as India, China, Indonesia, and other Asian countries.

This kind of talk is, nevertheless, reminiscent of the idealistic "do-goodism" which dominated a segment of our government a few years ago, and there are some cynics and some not-so-cynical realists who smile a little at such instructions as Vice-President Nixon received from the President before his personal tour of the Orient:

I think you should take a trip to the Far East. Take Pat with you, visit all the countries out there. I think it would be a good thing for us to know those folks better and for them to know more about us. I have a fundamental faith in the effect people can have on other people in removing points of irritation and in creating better understanding of mutual problems.

I recognize that the influence of the common man in international relations is somewhat of a *mystique*, but I am inclined to think that in the next decade the anthropologists, the sociologists, and the other behavioral scientists are going to prove that popular influence is of far greater importance than we can document today. Some of the adages to the effect that the "best way to spread an idea is to wrap it in a human being," are, I think, going to displace the sardonic observations of a geopolitician, like Nicolas Spykman, who insisted that no cultural relations program ever sold an automobile or a refrigerator, or contributed to the security of the United States.

How does the study of foreign language fit into this vast complex of persons, which in our enthusiasm we have made to include practically the entire population? Perhaps it will be helpful to look again at the categories we have just delineated. As for the Foreign Service it-

self, competence in at least one foreign language has traditionally been a part of the competitive examinations. Unavailability of academically trained persons who can pass the tests in social studies, English composition and in general knowledge and who can also demonstrate foreign language mastery has, however, led to a progressive weakening of this requirement. And now, an otherwise successful candidate is allowed five years after he enters the Service to pass his language examination. This has the unfortunate effect of implying to the prospective Foreign Service Officer that language training is not a very important part of his general education. Meanwhile, Secretary of State John Foster Dulles complains:

The United States today carries new responsibilities in many countries of the globe, and we are at a serious disadvantage because of the difficulty of finding persons who can deal with the foreign language problem. Interpreters are no substitute. It is impossible to understand what is in the minds of other people without understanding their language, and without understanding their language it is impossible to be sure that they understand what is in our minds.

The Department of State must spend valuable funds and our Foreign Service Officers must devote still more valuable time in language training in the Foreign Service Institute. This is training which, in large part, our schools and colleges should have provided. Our military agencies, likewise, have had to set up such institutions as the Army Language School at Monterey, California, and the special language programs at Syracuse University.

While the Department of State and the military have found it necessary to train their own personnel in foreign language, some of our agencies cannot wait. The USIA must have personnel who have complete domination not only of the traditional tongues such as French, German, Spanish, and Russian, but also of dozens of exotic languages. A knowledge of language is an even more necessary part of the equipment of an employee of such government intelligence agencies as the CIA or NSA. Then, our vast program of technical cooperation and assistance to the peoples of the underdeveloped areas needs a staff of persons with language competence. Technical assistance agencies, both government and private, function poorly when their staff members are unable to com-

municate. As the then United States Commissioner of Education, Earl J. McGrath, said in an address before the Conference on the Role of Foreign Languages in American Schools, January 15, 1953:

In some instances there is a psychological barrier between us and other nations. One of the most effective devices for breaking down this barrier is the use of the language of other countries with which we have contact. . . . On many occasions, our ability to lead the Free World will be determined not only by the financial and other assistance we can give foreign countries in improving their lot, but more particularly in the attitudes of good will that we can inspire in them by showing that we respect and value their cultures and their ways of life. . . . knowledge of their own language can be most helpful, for language is the gateway to the intellectual, emotional, and the spiritual life of a nation. It is to our national advantage, therefore, to provide many of our young people with the language skills needed to bring them into this immediate psychological contact with other peoples.

It was with this same understanding that Luther Evans remarked:

The competence of our citizens in the languages of others has become a national resource of great importance. It is essential that we develop this resource.

I am afraid we must confess that our scholars are not developing this resource to the extent needed today. As a former language teacher myself and as a representative of a University that has regrettably joined the procession of those teacher training institutions which allow elementary and even high school teachers to obtain a credential without a bare minimum of college language experience, I recognize that I am indulging in self-criticism. There are several factors involved in our schools' failure to perform their proper function. In the first place, there is the lack of both intensiveness and extensiveness in language training. We begin the study of language too late. If foreign language instruction is introduced into the elementary years, it is largely on a game basis, administered by teachers, too often themselves not competent in the language. In our high schools it is rare for a student to take more than two years of one language. And even in our colleges we are usually satisfied with four semesters. This is certainly not enough, even for the acquisition of a minimum reading and speaking ability, let alone for comprehending the psychology of the people who speak the language natively. Now, speaking of intensive language

training, I realize that the professional schools, operated by government agencies, do accomplish a great deal. They administer instruction severely. They provide several hours a day of training and use many mechanical aids which our public and private schools seldom even possess. I realize that we could hardly set this kind of intensive instruction into a normal school situation, but I submit that we do not give the emphasis to language which we do either to athletics or to science or even to music. As Theodore Meyer Green remarked in a Phi Beta Kappa lecture recently, "We do not throw students out of class as we do athletes from their squads who do not really try . . . We are interested in what we deeply value." And I would suggest that neither students nor administrators find adequate value in foreign language classes.

Thus, we fail to perform our function with regard to the variety of languages we teach. I realize that the traditions of French, German, and Spanish cultures and the readiness of the public to accept a study of these languages make them logical components of our curricula. I realize, too, that it is difficult to create interest in the study of Indonesian, Thai, Polish, Arabic, or even Russian or Chinese, but we need persons who are competent in these and many other tongues. Shall we leave the training entirely up to the government technical schools? There are problems of public acceptance, as I have suggested. There are also problems of cost. Fortunately, some of our foundations are becoming interested in this serious matter. Where local initiative is willing to begin an instructional program, outside assistance is becoming available. I think that we must look into it seriously and that even the public high school and junior college must consider the possibility of service to the nation through an increased variety of language training. This will be easiest, of course, in cities where descendants of immigrant families provide a ready response.

We have been discussing the language needs of the 100,000 or so government servants who must use their knowledge in official representation of the national interest, but we must recall the premise stated earlier that there are thousands, yes, millions, more of us who are coming into increasing contact with the people of other

countries through military, business, and simply tourist experience. It is fine to recognize that the Japanese, the Mexicans, the Italians, and the Brazilians are learning English, but I think there is no one who will positively suggest, as our smug diplomats used to say, "If they want to talk to me, let 'em learn English!" I am not sure how intensive or extensive the program of language training for the ordinary citizen should be. We must think in terms of the possible and in terms of the inevitable resistance of our people.

Let us now enter into a discussion of some of the intangibles which are so often adduced as the *raison d'être* of language programs. In general, I support the idea that language training is an integral part of a program of general education. I refer to the work prepared by Dr. B. Lamar Johnson, *General Education In Action*, and insist that at least three of the twelve goals of general education described therein are susceptible of achievement from foreign language programs. Using Dr. Johnson's terminology, I think that foreign language helps a student to "increase his competence in expressing his thoughts clearly in speaking and writing, and in reading and listening with understanding"; "understand his cultural heritage so that he may gain a perspective of his time and place in the world"; and "take part in some form of satisfying, creative activity and in appreciating the creative activities of others." I would venture to suggest, however, that as language teachers we frequently fail to accomplish these ends. When we have, let us say, two years to teach elementary Spanish to a group of college preparatory students, I fear that many of us spend most of our time, and necessarily so, on verbs, nouns, and adjectives, in translation exercises. The interesting material on culture, geography, and economy is too often given but cursory attention. Some of our most skilful instructors are successful in integrating this peripheral material with the study of language, but this demands rare ability, I am sure. Recently, I have been reading John Warrington's free translation of Caesar's *Commentary on the Gallic Wars*, and I am amazed to discover how much I might have learned of the culture patterns of the Gauls if I had not been bogged down with ablative absolutes.

There are several possible solutions to this dilemma. One, of course, is to lengthen the language training program so as to allow time for language training, and then to apply that learning in the study of material of substantive value. Another is to distinguish, at least in part, between the student who is certainly going to employ the language professionally and the one whose use thereof may be less active—the ordinary citizen. Can we, without undermining the principles of democracy in education, suggest ability and interest groupings? If so, we might judiciously include some English selections in our courses, being certain that the content of the literature of other peoples is conveyed even to the student of elementary language.

There is yet another problem: I wonder how many of us as language teachers have been trained to teach the substantive material in our texts? And I wonder, even more basically, how many of our textbooks are carefully selected with reference to the quality of that substantive material. I would be accused of proselytizing if I were to suggest that all future language instructors should be required to take courses in international relations. But I think I may quite safely insist that any language major pursue relevant courses in some of the social studies. I may certainly refer to the statement of the Modern Language Association's Committee on Trends in Education with regard to the training of college teachers of foreign language. (And I think the statement should apply with equal vigor to the high school instructor.) "The combined undergraduate and graduate studies of the teacher of foreign language should include training in the history, geography, literature, language and general background of the country which he is to interpret through the medium of its language . . ." I cite from the excellent study prepared by William R. Parker, *The National Interest and Foreign Languages*, published by the United States Government Printing Office in 1954.

It is a satisfaction to note that the Research Council of the Modern Language Association of Southern California has begun to study this problem, that, in fact, a sub-committee has been appointed to investigate "Which methods and techniques can best bring about integration

of other fields into the study of foreign languages?" May I offer some gratuitous suggestions? What is involved here is the question of how much education in international relations the intelligent layman should have. I would say, first, that we can, at any level, inculcate certain attitudes and approaches. Openmindedness is necessary, for example, as we face the myriad problems of international affairs—a disposition to consider two sides of a question, to consult more than one source, to listen to more than one commentator, to read more than one newspaper. This is general education at its best; to cite Dr. Johnson again, it is "using methods of critical thinking for the solution of problems and for the discrimination among values." As teachers, surely we ourselves have been trained in the use of the problem-solving method. Yet sometimes I suspect that we instruct *ex cathedra*. In other words, do we make any distinction between those elements of instruction which must be accepted without question and learned by rote and those which may be the recognized reward of the individual's own effort? With reference especially to the substantive material in our foreign language texts, I wonder if we are not satisfied if the student translates accurately and thus fail to encourage him to consider critically the material with which he has struggled.

Now as to the subject matter of international relations, I believe that the foreign language textbook can make a real contribution through its reading selections and illustrations. Supplementary materials—periodicals, newspapers, readers, filmstrips, and recordings—may be chosen, preferably in interdisciplinary collaboration with the social studies departments, so as to help prepare the student for either an active or a passive role in international relations. The student may certainly begin to evaluate the strengths and weaknesses of nation-states and perhaps even to understand some of the dynamics of their relationships.

The formula provided by Harold and Margaret Sprout in their text, *Foundations of National Power*, is a good beginning for an outline: ". . . manpower plus economic resources plus tools and skills, plus organization plus morale equals power potential which, given time, can be transmuted into power in being." If we add geographical considerations to the list, it would

seem nearly complete. The heading "morale" may be understood to include the cultural achievements of a people. Thus, the materials presented might have great variety and should appeal to varying student interests—as much, I think, as many of the selections and sometimes pointless stories which are now included in our textbooks. The use of the word "power" in the formula may be offensive to some, but I would like to say that we in international relations understand the term academically and in general and not as an indication of reliance upon military power as the immediate arbiter of

international misunderstanding and conflict.

If the language instructor is either to serve the idealistic goal of creating sympathy and understanding for other peoples, or to develop a trained citizenry in behalf of the national interest, he must come down from his cultural ivory tower. I believe he can do this without sacrificing any of the higher values which we all recognize to be latent in the materials of our discipline.

PAUL E. HADLEY

University of Southern California

* * *

To the extent that the entire human race may be said to be 'the children of one Father,' and even more to the extent that a common civilization spreads among all the peoples of the earth, to that extent a common language may be expected to spread, at first as an auxiliary language, over and above the vernacular, and in the end perhaps displacing it altogether. Moreover, if the ease and certainty of modern telecommunications remain even as effective as they now are, or still more if they are improved and perfected, then the forces which in the past have led to the dissolution of a common language into manifold dialects, and these in their turn into separate, national languages, will be greatly mitigated and perhaps cease altogether.

—JOSHUA WHATMOUGH

* * *

To possess another language is to possess a passport to travel beyond one's own boundaries, a key to enter otherwise hidden places.

—CAROL DENISON

* * *

Meaning Discrimination in Modern Lexicography

IN A recent article on the same topic in the *Journal*,¹ Dr. Iannucci discussed the glaring drawbacks of many bilingual dictionaries which, in numerous instances, still fail to be a dependable guide to the proper equivalents in the foreign, or "target," language. The author's survey of some thirty bilingual dictionaries offers convincing proof of the widespread lack of a sustained methodological approach: the gamut of objectionable specimens ranges from the presentation of rows of completely undiscriminated meanings to insufficiently labeled or otherwise faulty offerings. The conclusions reached by Mr. Iannucci are laid down in the following general principles for bilingual lexicography:

1. Meaning discriminations should be in the source language.
2. Meaning discriminations should be placed before the target word.

¹ James E. Iannucci, "Meaning Discrimination in Bilingual Dictionaries: A New Lexicographical Technique," *The Modern Language Journal*, XLI, No. 6 (October 1957), pp. 272-281. Unless otherwise indicated, page references are always to this article.

Source Dictionary

bolt *n.* 1. a movable bar which when slid into a socket fastens a door, gate, etc. 2. the part of a lock which is protruded from and drawn back into the case, as by the action of the key. 3. a strong metal pin, often with a head at one end and with a screw thread at the other to receive a nut. See illus. under *nut*. 4. a sudden swift motion or escape. 5. sudden desertion of a meeting, political party, program, etc. 6. a woven length of cloth. 7. a roll of wall paper. 8. a sudden dash, run, flight, etc. 9. a jet of water, molten glass, etc. 10. an arrow, esp. one for a crossbow. 11. a shaft of lightning; a thunderbolt.

gather *v.i.* 1. To bring together; to collect. 2. To pick out and collect, as a harvest; to cull; pick. 3. To accumulate by collecting and saving little by little. 4. To summon up a reserve of (strength, voice, etc.), preparatory to exertion; also, to draw (one's limbs or one's self) together; as, to *gather* one's wits. 5. To gain or win as by gradual increase. 6. To bring closely together the parts of; to draw together, as a piece of cloth by a thread. 7. To derive, or deduce, as an inference; to infer; conclude.—*v.i.* 1. To come together; to assemble. 2. To come to a head, as a sore, and generate pus. 3. To grow *larger* by accretion; to increase. . . .

3. Bilingual dictionaries intended for the use of the speakers of only one of the languages (e.g., classical dictionaries) should have meaning discriminations only in the native-foreign side.

Seeing that "even in the best dictionaries . . . meaning discrimination is very spotty" (p. 278), the author then undertakes to propound a new technique: the existence of a good many monolingual dictionaries satisfactorily conforming, *mutatis mutandis*, to the above principles suggests their use as a basis for foreign-language counterparts; these derivative lexica are to contain numbered sense divisions exactly corresponding to the definitions in the source language, and may either be bound separately or placed at the bottom of each page of the monolingual dictionary. Among others, Mr. Iannucci lists the following samples, drawn from *The American College Dictionary* (1955) and *Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary* (1953) respectively, for a proposed monolingual English-German Dictionary, or Section (to which, for the purpose of this brief note, I shall limit my observations):

Target Dictionary

bolt *n* 1 Riegel, 2 Falle, Riegel 3 Bolz 4 Sprung davon 5 Abfall, Abtrünnigkeit 6, 7 Rolle 8 Sturz, Flucht 9 Strahl 10 Bolz 11 Blitzstrahl, Donnerkeil

gather *v.i.* 1 sammeln, versammeln 2 ernten, lesen, pflücken 3 ansammeln 4 zusammennehmen 5 gewinnen 6 zusammenraffen 7 folgern, schließen *v.i.* 1 sich versammeln 2 eiern, reifen 3 sich vergrößern

It is at this point, I regret to say, that lingering misgivings both in respect of the practicability of the method and, in particular, the adequacy of the author's handling must be expressed. In the first place, there can be no doubt that dividing the bilingual word material of an otherwise compact dictionary into two unilingual halves puts a heavy strain on the patience of the user, whose eyes are thus expected to travel from one book to another, or at least to the bottom of the page, where, incidentally, they are liable to be caught by identical numberings of functional subdivisions (*n.:adj.*, *v.t.:v.i.*, etc.).

The second objection is even graver. If Mr. Iannucci's method is to meet with the success he expects, much more painstaking attention to detail must be given to the target side than is to be gathered from the sample entries. Parallel numberings excepted, there is an ominous absence of correlation between the two sides, and the German material does not nearly do justice to the rich offerings in the source language. Here are, then, the amended versions of three completely undiversified items:

bolt . . . 4. plötzliche Wendung *or* Bewegung; Sprung (*to the door* zur Tür); Davonlaufen, Ausreißen²

gather . . . *v.t.* 6. ([Bestand-]Teile) zusammenstellen, -setzen; (Stoff [-gewebe]) zusammenziehen, rafien, falten, kräuseln

gather . . . *v.i.* 3. zunehmen, Zuwachs erhalten; größer *or* stärker werden, sich vergrößern.

In my opinion, Mr. Iannucci should take little pride in the spurious "luxury" that "every target word has a complete definition available in the correct language" (p. 280). Such a remark is as specious as many an advertiser's slogan: it is true in a little and untrue in a big way, it glories in the fact that an English-speaking user can make hundred per cent sure that, for instance, "Riegel" is the correct equivalent of *bolt*, item 1, but it conveniently—yet quite unjustifiably—ignores the profuse diversity of the possible, and therefore mandatory, renderings of (say) *bolt*, item 5. "Abfall" and "Abtrünnigkeit" are, indeed, wholly unrepresentative and misleading; instead, the item should read something like this:

bolt . . . 5. Davonlaufen, *coll.* Davon- *or* Fortrennen (aus einer Versammlung), fluchtartiges Verlassen (einer Versammlung); plötzlicher *or* unerwarteter Austritt (aus

einer Partei); Abspringen, Abfall (von einem [Partei-] Programm).

One of the foremost goals of a lexicographer, after all, should be to aim at including in his "bag" as many synonyms and near-synonyms as possible, and to distinguish meticulously between them in their meaning and usage by providing numerous and exact restrictive labels.³

The inference deduced from the amended samples is twofold. First, it is indefensible to claim, as Mr. Iannucci does, that his technique for bilingual lexicography, if properly executed, makes less exacting demands on space than do the conventional methods; and, second, it is highly doubtful whether the meaning discrimination and wording of the items in a monolingual dictionary lend themselves ideally to a "systematic" transposition into the target language. This can readily be seen in the last sample given. In the original, the embrasive definition correctly gathers the individual applications ("meeting," "political party," "program") under one common heading ("sudden desertion"), but one would have to go some way to find a similarly convenient summary heading in the target language; the way to be taken out of the dilemma—which, moreover, is assured of its merits—is, therefore, to provide and duly identify as many idiomatic equivalents in order to cover all the ramified meanings listed in the source dictionary. In other words (to use a forceful metaphor), if you cannot hit the head you should try to tie all the arms of your octopus, and not one or two of them only.

The above experience, then, should make one extremely wary of accepting the author's further claim that "the definitions in an English monolingual dictionary could be used as meaning discriminations in any number of English-Foreign bilingual dictionaries".⁴ Such an optimism is bound to fall foul of the structural diversity of the vocabulary between any two languages: what is a useful organon in its

² It is very difficult indeed to imagine a context in which the solitary "Sprung davon" could be accepted at all as an idiomatic equivalent of "a sudden swift motion or escape."

³ Cf. James R. Hulbert, *Dictionaries British and American*, André Deutsch, London 1955, p. 83.

⁴ *Loc. cit.*, p. 278; similarly also on p. 280. The italics are mine.

self-centred monolingual aspect would then be reduced to the function of a tyrant's bed that leaves little or no room for a foreign-language dictionary to have its own way and say—which avowedly it should have.

In conclusion, the new technique⁵ will probably be met with a good deal of criticism or downright rejection, at least this side of the Atlantic, and the consensus of opinion, even among progressive lexicographers, may well be that the onus of proof still lies on the claimant, who should be invited both to point to, or (failing this) compile himself, the universally adaptable "parent" source dictionary and to produce a derivative target dictionary upon it. Until then the conventional type of dictionary is likely to hold the ground, but the outlook, nevertheless, is not without silver linings. In the field of European English-German lexicography at least, we shall have Professor Héraucourt's revision of Wildhagen's *Dictionary*⁶ (which, Mr. Iannucci may be pleased to learn, was largely based on a monolingual dictionary, the

C.O.D.) and a new edition of Langenscheidt's *Muret-Sanders Encyclopaedic Dictionary*, which should both be ranked among the most brilliant achievements of modern bilingual lexicography.

OTTO HIETSCH

Universities of Vienna and Padua

⁵ At the risk of gaining a reputation for quibbling, I may point out that Mr. Iannucci's plan is not really new, but rather an extension of well-tried (yet now rather abandoned) principles in the fields of technical and pictorial lexica. Such publications, e.g. the *Polyglot Dictionaries based on the "One-Language System"* (by O. Holtzmann: R. Oldenbourg, Munich 1937) and *The English Duden: Picture Vocabularies in English, Adapted from Duden's "Bildwörterbuch"* (by H. Klien and M. Ridpath-Klien: Bibliographisches Institut, Leipzig 1937), had the obvious advantage of either dealing with a specialist vocabulary that allowed of relatively few semantic ramifications, or having the invaluable aid of illustrations. All the same, as any careful reader is quick to notice, the Procrustean nature of the respective source dictionary even then impinges only too often on the set-up of the derivative work.

⁶ To be published now by Brandstetter-Verlag at Wiesbaden. The German-English part (numbering 1345 pages) first appeared there in 1953-54 and is currently being revised.

* * *

The study of words has never yet had its proper place in the educational course. If pursued at all, it has been a study of definitions merely, disconnected with etymology. We here trace the stream to its sources, explore its fruitful branches and its delta, where, by a hundred mouths, it brings down accumulated treasures to a common reservoir of human thought, whence, as from the ocean, is exhaled a healthful influence that refreshes the whole face of the earth.

—RUFUS W. BAILEY

* * *

Should Operas, Lyric Songs, and Plays Be Presented in a Foreign Language?

IT MAY seem professional heresy if a foreign-language teacher even proposes the question whether foreign-language productions, be they of literary or musical nature, should be presented in the language of their origin. And yet, if we want to be truthful, we must examine the problem from all angles. It is true that in most instances many originals lose some of their substance and flavor in a translation (*Traduttore-traditore*). But there are countless other features which more than make up for the shortcomings of translation.

It seems axiomatic that writers, poets and composers aim at certain moral, literary, esthetic and artistic values. The closer we come to a realization of these inherent values, the more we carry out the original intent of these creative artists. During an average song recital one and the same singer often parades four or five parts, each one in a different language. How is it possible, even for a brilliant singer, to do justice to such a variety of tongues, where English generally is treated in a stepmotherly fashion? Our conservatories and music schools certainly are not willing and able to train linguists.

Even if a singer were a polyglot the audience certainly could not follow him or her, especially with high voices. Many of our musical performances in the foreign language owe their lingering existence to mere snobbishness and remind us of Andersen's fable of the Emperor's new clothes where it took an innocent child to unmask flattery, conceit and hypocrisy.

It is a well-known fact that European audiences, almost without a single exception, receive their theatrical, operatic and musical fare in the language of their homeland. This is largely the reason why Shakespeare for instance is more at home in Germany (with the Schlegel translation) than in England or America. *Carmen* is just as popular in Italy as in France, and the Russians enjoy in their language the artistic creations of the West, whether it is

Hamlet (with them *Gamlet*), Wagner's music dramas, *Madame Butterfly*, or Schubert songs.

Naturally, we could not complain if these productions were presented to select groups and esoteric circles who come close to a native audience. But the conditions generally prevailing are a far cry from such circumstances. By clinging to an outdated tradition, no matter how ideal it might have been once upon a time, we deprive our singers and actors from giving their best musical and theatrical performance, and we make it impossible for the audience to enter into the spirit of the masterpieces. Many an amateur group could perform worthwhile performances if it were not for the hurdle of the foreign idiom. In this manner countless masterpieces cannot find a large audience, and much of our precious musical and theatrical talent lies barren for lack of golden opportunities.

It has often been said that even second-rate translations would be preferable to performance in the original language where the performers and the audience are not up to it, which is too often the case. What prevents us from having first-class translations, in some cases even translations superior to the originals. For it is a known fact that many of the librettos are not particularly brilliant, and even Richard Wagner's German is far from unsurpassable. True, the translation especially of musical operas and concert songs poses its special problems of metre, rime, singability, matching musical notes with corresponding syllables or changing the one or the other, onomatopoetic considerations, or finding a whole series of similar words where two, three and four persons sing together. But even though the task requires considerable ingenuity, it should be tackled with that much more enthusiasm. In the words of one musicologist, there is nothing wrong with operatic translations but that in many instances the translator knew little of the original language, not enough of his own, and nothing about music.

Whereas formerly the translation of operatic and other musical texts was largely left to literary hacks, it has of late attracted the attention of talented writers. The Metropolitan Opera Company is regularly performing lighter operas and operettas in English (*Fledermaus*) and has even attacked more pretentious operas, such as *La Bohème* and *Madame Butterfly*, as well as Mozart's *Magic Flute*. Very good singable translations have been made and performed of Sebastian Bach's choral works, of Brahms', Schubert's, Schumann's, and Hugo Wolf's songs. There is no earthly reason why the language of Shakespeare, Burns, Keats, and Whitman should not be capable of producing translations which are worthy of the best dramatic, lyrical, and musical masterpieces.

Some of the criteria applicable to an excellent translation and some pertinent observations relating thereto are the following:

1) Translations should not be felt as such but should read and sound like English originals. They should be produced by English-speaking persons thoroughly imbued with the spirit of the original and possessed of all the genius portrayed by it. With musical originals, they must have a thorough knowledge of that art. After a good translation has been made, it should be thoroughly checked by a native.

2) In producing the translation, the translator should as much as possible abide by the metre and rhyming scheme of the original where this can be done without producing a stilted effect. While a part of the rhyming system may be sacrificed at times without ill effects, the general style of the piece must never be forfeited. A playful ditty must remain playful, a philosophical passage must not stray into another sphere, a simple and natural outpouring of elementary passion must not be converted into a sophisticated passage.

3) In musical works, the rhythm of the text must follow

Behind the gate and fountain
a linden towers high;
In dreams beneath its shadow
the hours went sweetly by.
Ah, many a tender message
was graven in its bark;
its presence gave me comfort
when days were sad and dark.

The icy wind of winter
was blowing in my face,
my hat flew off and vanished,
I did not slack my pace.
The tree is far behind me,
but as the miles increase,
I still can hear it rustling:
—Come here and find your peace—.

that of the music. Important notes and passages must coincide with important words and syllables. Eye-rhymes such as *through-enough*, should be avoided since songs are primarily for the ear and not for the eye. With high notes it is necessary to avoid the closed front vowels. Often it may be necessary to preserve certain vowel sounds where their use was a premeditated device of the poet. The same thing is true with alliteration and onomatopoeic words. Rapid syllables must trip easily off the tongue, especially with 16th notes. Where quotations from the Bible or the church liturgy are used, it is advisable to employ the forms known to the prospective audience.

To elucidate some of the points made above, a few good and bad translations are cited in the following. The first translation of Wolfram's *Song to the Evening Star* from Richard Wagner's *Tannhäuser* would probably be just as effective as the composer's original:

Like death's foreboding, twilight veils the meadows,
And cloaks the land in black, mysterious shadows.
The soul which ever longs for yonder height,
Through dark and terror dreads the coming flight.
And then a star proclaims its bright existence,
Its gentle beam casts light across the distance.
The twilight shatters, broken by its ray,
The valley lightens, and we find our way.

O lovely star, my evening star,
Often I've greeted you afar!
Take now my greeting, tried and true,
Give it to her as she comes to you,
When from the valley far behind you
On angel wings she soars to find you.

(Translation by Mary Ellis Peltz)

The following rendering of Schubert's "*Der Lindenbaum*," by the ingenious musician-translator Henry S. Drinker, is no in way inferior to the original:

And now I pass beneath it,
alone in deepest night,
and in the utter darkness
I shut my two eyes tight.
And then its branches rustle,
as if to call to me:
—Come here, my good companion,
for here at peace are we—.

In closing let us cite one of the customary inadequate operatic translations, *Carmen's Love Song* (Act I, Scene 5), together with the French original:

French Original

L'amour est un oiseau rebelle
Que nul ne peut apprivoiser,
Et c'est bien en vain qu'on l'appelle,
S'il lui convient de refuser.

Rien n'y fait, menace ou prière,
L'un parle bien, l'autre se tait;
Et c'est autre que je préfère,
Il n'a rien dit mais il me plait.

L'amour est enfant de Bohême,
Il n'a jamais connu de loi;
Si tu ne m'aimes pas, je t'aime;
Si je t'aime, prends garde à toi.

L'oiseau que tu croyais surprendre
Battit de l'aile et s'envola—
L'amour est loin, tu peux l'attendre,
Tu ne l'attends plus—il est là

Tout autour de toi, vite, vite,
Il vient, s'en va, puis il revient—
Tu crois le tenir, il t'évite,
Tu veux l'éviter, il te tient.

English Libretto

Ah! Love, thou art a wilful wild bird
And none may hope thy wings to tame,
If it please thee to be a rebel,
Say, who can try and thee reclaim?

Threats and prayers alike unheeding,
Oft ardent homage thou'lt refuse,
Whilst he who doth coldly slight thee
Thou for thy master thou'lt choose.

For love, he is the lord of all,
And ne'er law's icy fetters will he wear,
If thou me lovest not, I love thee,
And if I love thee, now beware!

The bird, so fast held in thy hand,
And which thou deemedst so secure,
Mounts in a moment to the skies;
Nor, till he choose, can you him lure.

He comes, he goes; at all laughs he.
Would you seize him? He gets free!
Care not for him—then he'll prove
Thy slave instead of master—Love!

In contrast to the preceding poor English translation of the French original, let us compare the following excellent German translation

which is usually sung when *Carmen* is performed in Germany:

Ja, die Liebe hat bunte Flügel,
Solch einen Vogel zählt man schwer;
Haltet fest sie mit Band und Zügel,
Wenn sie nicht will, kommt sie nicht her.

Ob ihr bittet, ob ihr befiehlt,
Ob ihr sprecht und ob ihr schweigt,
Oft nach Laune sie den erwählt
Und heftigt liebt, der stumm sich zeigt.

Weit im Kreise siehst du ihn ziehen,
Bald ist er fern, bald ist er nah.
Halt ihn fest, und er wird entfliehen,
Weichst du ihm aus,—flugs ist er da.

Die Liebe von Zigeunern stammet,
Fragt nach Rechten nicht, Gesetz und Macht;
Liebst du mich nicht, bin ich entflammet,
Und wenn ich lieb', nimm dich in Acht!

Glaubst den Vogel du schon gefangen,
Ein Flügelschlag—ein Augenblick,
Er ist fort, und du harrst mit Bangen;
Eh' du's versiehst—ist er zurück.

JACOB HIEBLE

No. Texas State College
Denton, Texas

* * *

Perhaps of all the creations of man language is the most astounding.

—GILES LYTTON STRACHEY

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Teaching, Testing, and the Ph.D. Language Requirements

THE number of articles written in recent years concerning the Ph.D. language requirements reflects the growing concern of language departments, especially French and German departments, over the loss and weakening of these requirements. Most of the articles written in defense of the Ph.D. language requirements have centered around two points: the necessity for languages in scholarship, and the necessity for standardized tests for Ph.D. language requirements.¹ It is not my purpose to disagree with the writers of these articles, especially since I believe wholeheartedly that no one can properly deny the need for these things. I wish merely to point out that such points are of little avail in persuading educators as to the value of such requirements. In reaffirming the value of language knowledge in scholarship, we are in effect attacking strawmen, since no educator can deny this value.² The attacks leveled at Ph.D. language requirements are not leveled at the idea of such requirements *per se*; they are leveled at existing programs. Clearly, an "agonizing reappraisal" of our programs for the satisfaction of language requirements is needed. Theoretical discussions as to the necessity of standardized tests and standard programs is of great value, but what is needed at present is a more practical program, one which can be put into operation immediately, and one which will satisfy the need for languages in research. Once the purpose of the course and the method of teaching and testing are determined, standardized tests can be set up.

The purpose of the Ph.D. language requirements should be: *to insure that the candidate has a knowledge of the language in question such that he is able to use it in his research.* More or less than such a requirement is unrealistic and impractical. All programs designed to provide the Ph.D. candidate with the knowledge necessary to fulfil the Ph.D. language requirements should be centered around this aim. The question now

is: Do present programs tend to fulfil this aim? If they do not, what means may best be employed to remedy the situation? The answer to these questions is the purpose of this article.

TESTING THE PH.D. LANGUAGE REQUIREMENTS

In beginning with the problem of testing, I may seem to put the cart before the horse, as indeed I do. It is necessary to begin with testing for the simple reason that the test has always been the tail that wags the dog in the case of language requirements for the Ph.D. Candidates are usually interested only in that which helps them to satisfy the requirements, to pass the test.³ Let us ask ourselves whether the

¹ Cf. C. H. McCloy, "A Letter to the Dean of the Graduate College," *MLJ*, XLII (1958), 45-46; *idem*, "Do Educators Need Foreign Languages?" *MLJ*, XXXIX (1955), 77-78; T. B. Stroup, "Languages in the Task Ahead in Scholarship," *Bulletin of Business School Services* (University of Kentucky), XXIV (March, 1952), 59-61; N. Siegel and R. G. Bernreuter, *The American Psychologist*, VI (1951), p. 179.—H. H. Remmers, "Standardizing Foreign Language Requirements for the Ph.D.," *School and Society* (1955), 84-85; D. G. Speer, "For Standardized Graduate Language Requirements," *MLJ*, XLI (1957), 292-293; L. White, *JHE*, XXV (1954), 150-152.

² Indeed, it does not behoove us to argue requirements with the other departments; we are merely the means whereby the requirements are tested and prepared for. This was admirably put by Frank X. Braun in his article, "German for Research," *GQ*, XXVII (1954), 116-122: "It is hardly within the province of foreign language teachers to probe into the justifications of what appears to be scholarly insularity in any field of specialization other than their own. It is, however, decidedly within the range of our responsibilities to make our courses, designed to train graduate students in the use of foreign languages for research purposes, so meaningful and to give them such realistic direction that scholarly isolationism based on linguistic unpreparedness loses its reason for being."

³ Braun, in the article mentioned above, uses the success and failure of the student on the final exam as a measure of the success or failure of his course. The same is true of other scholars, cf. J. R. Frith, "French for Graduate Students," *MLJ*, XXXV (1951), 444-446. This in spite of the fact that the test had not been set up for those courses.

testing programs at present in force in the major American colleges and universities are of such a nature as to assure fulfilment of the aim stated above. Fortunately, we possess an excellent survey of Ph.D. language tests and requirements, based on a study of 71 institutions, published by Miss Sara E. Piel in 1951. Miss Piel summarizes her findings as follows:

An examination in a modern foreign language, written, with the use of the dictionary permitted for at least part of the test, prepared and administered by the language department, with the material chosen quite probably by the language department from the field of the student's major interest. This test takes one to two hours; the student is expected to translate about 500 words, and the material is of "average" or "reasonable" difficulty, meaning probably the difficulty found in a second-year course in the language.⁴

The large sample taken by Miss Piel, coupled with my own experience with a number of institutions in the South and the Midwest, and conversations with many colleagues, lead me to believe that this is a reasonably adequate and accurate statement of requirements now in effect. It will now discuss this statement point by point.

The amount covered on the test. Miss Piel gives a further breakdown of the figures concerning the amount of material covered as follows:

The number of words required to be translated in the allotted time varies considerably: 7 per minute, 8-10 per minute, 10 per minute, 12 per minute, 275 per hour, 300-400 per hour, 400 per hour, 450 per hour, 500 per 1½ hours, 500 per 2 hours, 50 lines per 2 hours, 1½ single spaced sheets per 2 hours, 2 pages with unlimited time, "a reasonable amount." Many institutions (56 [of 71 studied]) have no stipulated amount.⁵

On reading this statement, one wonders that the dissatisfaction with the Ph.D. language requirements is not more widespread. Requirements for the Ph.D. degree are amorphous enough in most institutions; language departments should not permit themselves the luxury of fuzzy and undefined requirements, especially when this can only increase the dissatisfaction over these requirements. Even those institutions which have fixed requirements, as set down above, cannot believe that such requirements are actually providing insurance that the candidate is able to use the language in question in his research. The page you are now reading contains 500 or more words. If you were not able to read this article at a rate greater than a

page an hour, could you afford to read it? Naturally not, and neither can the Ph.D. candidate afford to spend an hour of his valuable time on every page of reading he does in the foreign language. Clearly, a requirement of 500 words per hour is unrealistic; it is much too low. We should insist on a requirement of at least 2,000 words an hour, if not more. But, if we cannot maintain a requirement of 500 words an hour, how can we hope to get other departments to agree to a requirement of 2000 words? The answer lies, I believe, in our testing methods.

Reading and translation. It will be noted that, in the above quotations, Miss Piel tacitly equated reading-comprehension and translation. Indeed, in all statements of Ph.D. language requirements which have come to my attention, such an equation is tacitly accepted, and many educators writing about Ph.D. language requirements have explicitly made this equation. Thus, W. N. Locke defines *read* as: "To understand the exact meaning of the author of the original and to be able to prove this understanding by translating into English in such a way as to convey to the reader the precise ideas which the author of the original wished to convey."⁶ Virtue and Baklanoff equate reading and translation in the following statement: "The importance of *translation* (italics mine) is recognized by our system of higher education in that liberal arts schools require language study and the doctorate degree requires more or less facility in one or two languages."⁷ What these authors and many others seem not to recognize is that the two skills of reading-comprehension and translation are basically different, and that facility in the one does not necessarily mean facility in the other. As Vietor has put it, translation is a skill which cannot be taught in class. Anyone who has had experience as a translator or an interpreter

⁴ Sara E. Piel, "Qualifying Tests in Modern Languages for the Doctor's Degree," *GQ*, XXIV (1951), p. 112. Of the 71 institutions polled, 7 were polytechnic schools, the others "mostly large state universities."

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 111.

⁶ W. N. Locke, "Effective Preparation for Graduate Language Requirements," *MLJ*, XXXIV (1950), p. 532.

⁷ L. M. Virtue and N. W. Baklanoff, "The Technique of Translation," *MLJ*, XXXVI (1952), p. 397.

knows that a thorough knowledge of the two languages in question, and an exact knowledge of what the author wished to convey, do not always make a person a good translator. All of us have had the experience of reading books in our own language in which we did not know the meaning of every word used. Nevertheless, we were able to get the "gist" of the book, the main points of argument. It is not necessary to know the meaning of every word in a text to abstract from it enough information to be able to use the text for research purposes. To translate, however, it is necessary to look up the words, every one of them, even those which carry little information.

That is all well and good, you may say, but a person who can translate 500 words an hour can surely *read* 2000. Investigations carried out with a number of students at the University of Michigan and Washington University have demonstrated to my satisfaction that this is not so. The skills used in translation are so different from those used in reading that a student trained in translation of German, for example, will find it extremely difficult, if not impossible, to develop proper reading habits. It is necessary for translation purposes to break the sentence up into elements, and to rearrange those elements in the proper English order. Unless the student forms early the habit of taking in large segments of the sentence at one time, he will be forced to translate in reading.⁸ It is a good commercial translator who can do 2000 words an hour; it is a poor reader who cannot do five times that much. At any rate, we are not teaching translation in our Ph.D. language programs, or at least we ought not to be. A test based on an ability to translate is an unfair one; it is an unrealistic one, since the candidate will probably never be called upon to translate in his research; he needs merely to read and understand, not to translate.

I propose then that we attempt to be more realistic in our testing for Ph.D. language requirements, that the test attempt to reproduce the actual conditions and problems the student is likely to face in using the language in his research, since that is the ability we are testing. We should exclude any translation requirement from our testing for Ph.D. language requirements and introduce a reading test.

Such a test should be administered in the following manner. The departments who have candidates being tested should submit a number of tests in appropriate fields, consisting of articles or parts of books in the field. They should also submit a number of key questions, along with the answers to the questions, concerning each article or part of a book, questions of such a nature that a good knowledge of the piece in question will be required to answer them. A minimum of 2000 words an hour or more may be set. The student will read the article the required amount of time, taking notes if he wishes, using a dictionary and/or a grammar if he wishes, since we want to be realistic and he will have these tools with him when he is doing research. At the end of the time, the questions will be presented to him, and he will not be permitted to refer further to the article or book. If he can answer the questions, he will be considered to have passed; if not, he has failed. The advantages of such a test may be summed up in one statement: it is realistic; it is "geared to the real life situation." In addition, a standardized test based on these proposals should be easy to construct, with the cooperation of the departments in question. And, lastly, such a test represents a strengthening, not a weakening, of our requirements.

TEACHING FOR THE PH.D. LANGUAGE REQUIREMENTS

How should one teach the language in such a manner as to provide the student with the skills needed to pass this test? The answer is again simple: one must teach him to read and to comprehend. Any method or material introduced into the classroom which does not tend toward that aim is improper and should be excluded.

The static approach. Physical phenomena may be divided, from a phenomenological stand-

⁸ It is, of course, improper to speak of the eye as taking in large segments at a time; the center of sharp vision, the *fovea centralis*, covers an angle of less than one degree. What actually happens is that the eye moves in a series of jerks, called "saccadic movements." For all intents and purposes of our discussion here, we may speak of the eye as scanning large segments. For a discussion of eye movements and related problems, see L. Carmichael and W. F. Dearborn, *Reading and Visual Fatigue* (London, 1948); cf. also Colin Cherry, *On Human Communication* (New York, 1957), pp. 285-288.

point, into processes, which are essentially temporal in function, and arrangements or structures, which are essentially spatial in function.⁹ Language may be looked upon from either of these two standpoints. In our usual teaching, we treat language as a process; we tell our students in German I, for example, that the finite verb is placed at (or goes to) the end of the clause in indirect questions, after subordinating conjunctions and relative pronouns.¹⁰ Since such statements have worked for years, it never occurs to us to question their validity, and we apply them in the Ph.D. language course, when we are called upon to teach it. In so doing, however, we are making a grave error. Whether language is a process or an arrangement or both, it is true that the language on the printed page is an arrangement. It has no real temporal occurrence, and its elements cannot be rearranged. It is properly read from left to right, not by "going to the end to pick up the verb," for example.¹¹ When one has to "generate utterances in the target language," i.e. write or speak the language, process statements are required; when one wants to read the written language, arrangement statements are necessary. The treatment of the sentence as an arrangement and not a process has been called the static approach by Oswald and Fletcher.¹² In another article, I have set down some points of the static approach for German; I believe them applicable to any language:

(1) Avoid a description of elements which are redundant, i.e. which afford the student no information, and do not call his attention to these elements.¹³ Thus, in German, the weak and mixed adjective declensions need not be described, since they are dependent upon, i.e., may be predicted from, the occurrence of other elements. Final position of the finite verb after *dass* or *weil*, for example, need not be explained, since final position is mandatory after these conjunctions.

(2) Avoid process statements, and define elements by their immediate context. For example, *da* "since" is defined as "Mark of punctuation + *da* - verb = since." All other *da*'s are adverbs.

(3) Use formulaic statements of definitions, since such statements are by nature static, and especially since they permit one to dispense

with long verbalizations. Most students in Ph.D. language courses are, furthermore, accustomed to formulas. For example, the "break" at the beginning of the long attribute construction in German may be defined as:

<i>der</i>	word + (adjective) +	<i>der</i>	word
<i>ein</i>		<i>ein</i>	preposition
			adverb
			pronoun. ¹⁴

Whenever the student encounters such a sequence, he knows that he has a long attribute construction to deal with. A little practice with fragments based on this formula will enable him always to recognize the long attribute construction, and recognition in this case is 90 per cent of the problem.

(4) Use fragment sentences for practice and prediction. Since the mind must predict in advance what construction is coming in reading, in order for the element of redundancy in language to be exploited, the student must become accustomed to guessing the end of the sentence. This may be done by giving him fragment sentences and asking him to predict the following constructions. For example, the stu-

⁹ Cf. Werner Meyer-Eppler, "Informationstheorie," *Die Naturwissenschaften*, XXXIX (1952), p. 341.

¹⁰ Actually this common rule is a mistatement; see my article "The Teaching of German Word Order—A Linguistic Approach," soon to appear in *Language Learning*.

¹¹ On eye movements in reading German, see J. T. Waterman, "Reading Patterns in German and English," *GQ*, XXVI (1953), 225-228; G. T. Bushwell, "The Significance of Eye-Movement Studies," reprinted from his *A Laboratory Study of the Reading of Modern Languages* (New York, 1928) in Maxim Newmark, *20th Century Modern Language Teaching: Sources and Readings* (New York, 1948) (cf. p. 253).

¹² V. A. Oswald and S. L. Fletcher, "Proposals for the Mechanical Resolution of German Syntax," *MLF*, XXXVI (1951), 81-104.

¹³ J. W. Marchand, "The Teaching of Reading German—A Linguistic Approach," *Language Learning*, VI (1956), 39-46. *Redundancy* is taken over here from the mathematical theory of information; the redundancy of an item may be said to be a measure of its predictability. For a brief summary of the theory of information, see the article by Meyer-Eppler mentioned above or the review of Shannon and Weaver's, *The Mathematical Theory of Communication*, by C. F. Hockett in *Language*, XXIX (1953).

¹⁴ The term *break* is taken from Meno Spann, "Two Birds with One Stone," *GQ*, XXI (1948), 33-36.

dent who has been properly taught knows that a clause of purpose (infinitive clause or *dass* clause, "because" or "in order to, so that" clause) must follow such a fragment as "Man hat ihn darum bewundert," since the *darum* is "an arrow pointing to the clause of purpose."

(5) The use of statistical studies in setting up rules for prediction. If, for example, two grammatical constructions are possible in a given sequence, and if one predominates by 95 per cent, or is habitually given by informants provided with fragment sentences to complete, then we may safely ignore the other in our statement of the grammatical rule.¹⁵ For example, "*der* -verb=relative pronoun." One can immediately think of numerous exceptions to this rule, such as cases of apposition, items in a series, etc., but, given the sequence: "Er sah die Frau, die. . .", almost anyone would assume that the sequence beginning with *die* would be a relative clause. This is a very predominant pattern in German.

Classroom exercises. The above statements are somewhat theoretical, and they are meant to be. I should like now to indicate how some of these suggestions may be put into practice. Once the formulaic statements have been prepared, exercises using them may be prepared and presented to the class via the tachistoscope.¹⁶ For example, in drilling the long attribute construction in German, one can flash such fragments as *jener schon, ein anderer das, dieses sich, solche dem, kein von*, etc. on the board, mixed in a random manner with other elements, and thus prepare the class for this common construction. Nonsense word sentences, in which the student must concentrate on the structure and not the meaning (as for example, "Der Woggel uggelte dem Diggel einen Squiggel."¹⁷), can be prepared and presented by means of flash cards and later by means of the tachistoscope. After each group of grammar points has been gone over, the students can read prepared sheets, embodying these points, and answer questions over the sheets. At first this can be done by preparing sheets of uniform length. Later on, when it is necessary to choose material from the student's own field, a pacer, a device for measuring reading speed, will have to be introduced. Fragment sentences may be

presented via tachistoscope, with the student being asked to predict the construction to follow. By using such methods, we can prepare the student for the structures he will meet, and insure that he is able to handle them at the proper rate of speed.

The Laboratory. It is essential for such an approach that we have a laboratory equipped to provide the student with practice materials and self-testing and self-teaching devices. This is true for several reasons. The lab can be used for diagnosis of the student's reading problems, which can only be done imperfectly in the classroom. As we all know from the use of laboratories in the teaching of elementary courses, the laboratory is an interest getter, and many a student will spend an hour in the lab where he will not spend an hour in study elsewhere. In addition, the lab will permit self-study for those who cannot take the regular course, and offer unique testing opportunities for both student and teacher. The basic equipment of such a laboratory should be: a film projector with proper films, tachistoscopes, pacers, and ophthalmographs.

The film projector. Films of proper eye movements and proper reading methods, such as those now used in remedial reading courses, could be made, perhaps in cartoon fashion, with "bouncing ball" techniques, to be shown to the class during the course, perhaps after each series of presentations of material. The value of film presentation, especially cartoon presentation, is too well recognized for it to need a defense here.

The tachistoscope. Anyone who has worked in remedial reading programs can vouch for the usefulness of this device. A student who works an hour a week on the structure points presented in the class will know them thoroughly, given the high degree of intelligence and reading skills our students have. Enough tachistoscopes

¹⁵ On the use of informant reaction to replace statistics, see Marchand, op. cit., Zellig S. Harris, "From Phoneme to Morpheme," *Language*, XXXI (1955), 190-222.

¹⁶ A tachistoscope is a device by means of which words, letters, drawings, etc. may be flashed upon a screen for short intervals of time, which may be very precisely controlled. On the use of the tachistoscope, see J. I. Brown, "Vocabulary via Tachistoscope," *Educational Screen*, XXX (September, 1951), 274 ff.; G. A. Miller, J. S. Bruner, and L. Postman, "Familiarity of Letter Sequences and Tachistoscopic Identification," *Journal of Genetic Psychology*, L (1954), 129-139.

¹⁷ The suggestion for the use of such nonsense sentences came to me from Professor Charles C. Fries of the University of Michigan.

should be provided that they can be used privately.

The pacer. Again, anyone who has worked in remedial reading knows the value of this device. The student could come into the lab once a week or even less frequently and time himself with the pacer, on material he could either choose himself or have provided for him. He could thus check his progress, know when he was falling behind and be able to ask for diagnosis of his troubles, and best of all know when he was ready to take the test. In the later stages of classroom work, pacers are necessary, since the teacher could not prepare enough material of suitable length without the use of pacers.

The ophthalmograph. The ophthalmograph, a machine for recording eye-movements by photographing corneal reflections, could be used mostly for diagnosis.¹⁸ At various stages of the course, the student's eye movements in reading at first prepared, then random, samples in the language could be recorded. In this manner, we could assure ourselves that he was employing the most economical eye movements possible.

The Exclusion of Extraneous Material. It should be obvious to all of us that anything which detracts or departs from the goal of providing the student with the skills necessary to reading and comprehending the language should be expressly excluded from the course, and yet this exclusion is one of the hardest tasks for the teacher or administrator of a Ph.D. language program, since it means giving up some of our pet theories and our pet subjects. I myself, for example, have always prided myself on my ability to explain the German verb system, and I am afraid I spend an inordinate amount of time on that subject in my German I courses. In the Ph.D. course, however, I spend only the essential amount of time, giving only enough explanation of the verb to permit the students to recognize the parts they will meet in reading. In the course for natural science students, I exclude the *du* and *ihr* forms entirely, and deal for the most part only with the 3rd person forms. As for the subjunctive, I teach for the most part only the 3rd singular endings, trusting to redundancy to indicate that a "subjunctive idea" is present. We language teachers are but servants of the other departments in administering the teaching and testing of the Ph.D. language requirements, and as good servants we must serve well, repressing our natural inclinations where necessary.

The oral-aural approach. To so-called oral-aural or mim-mem approach is a fine method, and I have used it with great success myself. It has no place in a Ph.D. reading course. If we

were able to have twenty contact hours a week for two semesters, wonderful results might be obtained by this method.¹⁹ When we have the student for three hours a week for one or two semesters, insistence on repetition and memorization of patterns would mean that we could not possibly present enough material to enable the student to fulfil our aim. In addition, even if the method were efficacious, it would still be a source of dissatisfaction among our graduate students. I do not agree with R. S. Meyerstein in excluding oral practice entirely from the classroom.²⁰ Five minutes a day for the first two weeks is harmless, and it at least assures us that the student will recognize the phonemic oppositions which obtain in German. Writing on the board is clumsy and tiring, and spelling, even of English words, requires a great deal of practice in listening on the part of the student, besides being awkward and time-consuming. It is much more efficient to be able to read an occasional simple sentence rather than having to write it on the board or, what is worse, spell it out.

Cultural material. Here again we must curb our natural missionary spirit, for it does not behoove us to make propaganda to a captive audience. Our textbooks should be chosen in such a manner that only a minimum of unnecessary vocabulary, idioms, and constructions is introduced into the class. Textbooks which introduce discussions in the language on Germany, German literature, German politics, etc., to take the German example, should not be used. The Ph.D. candidate easily realizes when he is being propagandized, and he is quick to resent it.

The above suggestions have been both theoretical and practical. It is believed that the setup outlined above is superior to programs now in effect, in that it is more practical and realistic.

JAMES W. MARCHAND

Washington University
St. Louis, Missouri

¹⁸ For a discussion of the ophthalmograph and other devices for measuring eye movements, see Carmichael and Dearborn, *op. cit.*; H. F. Brandt, *The Psychology of Seeing* (New York, 1945).

¹⁹ Such a program is described by J. R. Frith, *op. cit.*

²⁰ Cf. R. S. Meyerstein, "Realism and Usefulness of Exclusive Reading," *MLJ*, XXXIX (1955), 85-88.

Spanish Placement Tests for College Freshmen

THE following study is offered primarily for the benefit of those departments of modern languages which do not use placement tests in their programs and have wondered about their desirability and usefulness.* This study may also be of interest to those departments which do use placement tests but have not gotten around yet to a study and analysis of their own experience with such tests. One advantage of our study is that in dealing with the smaller number of students in a liberal arts college in contrast to the much greater numbers say, in a large state university, we have been encouraged to secure a more thorough coverage rather than base our conclusions upon a random sampling. Not only do the data presented in this paper cover virtually every student who has taken a placement test in Spanish since such tests were introduced at Oberlin College, but an attempt has been made to relate the performance in placement tests to specific cases, thus making possible a more judicious interpretation of the results.

Before the introduction of placement tests in Spanish at Oberlin, that is, before the spring of 1953, the following situation prevailed: all incoming freshmen with two years of credit in high school or prep school Spanish were, regardless of their linguistic competence, scheduled for our intermediate course (Spanish 3-4). Those incoming freshmen with three or four years of high school Spanish were scheduled for our Spanish 5-6 course (Conversation and Composition) or our Spanish 11-12 course (an introductory course in modern Spanish literature). On rare occasions, students with two years' preparation in high school, realizing the inadequacy of their knowledge of Spanish, voluntarily signed up for our beginning course (Spanish 1-2), with the hope of having a more successful and enjoyable experience by starting over again with a clean slate. And there were some students with three or four years of high school preparation who decided on their own to take our intermediate course rather than push their luck too far by undertaking a course

one step above that level. Thus, before the era of placement tests, decisions as to the proper course in Spanish for each incoming freshman were made in the registrar's office, and on the basis of bookkeeping requirements met, or occasionally by the individual student himself. The Spanish Department accepted all the students who had, by these procedures, been enrolled for the Spanish courses. The results were sometimes happy, sometimes disastrous. Much sleep was lost by both instructor and student as a result of that no man's land of the college grade structure, namely, the "D-." Instructors in whom the quality of mercy was not strained, and who thus were tempted to read an "F+" performance as "D-," found that the ailing patient preferred to continue his Spanish studies with the same doctor rather than risk unsuccessful surgery at the hands of a new and probably more disinterested physician. Some inadequately prepared students who had taken Spanish in the first place because it was "the easiest language" (all one had to remember was that *a* is "ah," *e* is "eh" and *i* is "ee") withdrew, usually failing, as a result of pressure from two verbs *to be*, two not so simple past tenses, and two imperfect subjunctives. Other students who had had three years of Spanish in high school and who were admitted to their great delight to Spanish 5-6 (for what they *really* wanted was "conservation") found that they couldn't open their mouths.

In the spring of 1953 we decided that we had had enough of this, and having administered a placement test to our Spanish 2 students (i.e., at the end of the elementary year of college Spanish) to provide a basis of comparison with the performance of incoming freshmen, we can say *nous avons changé tout cela*, or rather, *hemos cambiado todo eso*. Ever since then, we have regularly given a placement test to our Spanish 2 students at the end of their first year of study at Oberlin and to all incom-

* A paper read at the OMLTA meeting, Columbus, Ohio, April 6, 1957.

ing freshmen regardless of the number of years of Spanish which they have previously had. On the basis of their performance in that test, incoming freshmen are assigned to our beginning course if they score below our minimum passing grade on the test (in other words, they are put in classes with those students who have never before had any Spanish), to the intermediate course if they score between the minimum passing grade and a grade sufficiently high to warrant a prognosis of excellent achievement, and to the 5-6 or 11-12 course if their score is so high that the student can be encouraged to take a course above the intermediate level, one more challenging to his aptitude.

Thus far we have used only one test, a standardized test probably well known to most teachers in the modern language field, but which I will describe very briefly. It is the American Council on Education *Cooperative Spanish Test*, Revised Series, Advanced Form O, drawn up by E. H. Hespelt, R. H. Williams and Geraldine Spaulding. The test, to which forty minutes are assigned, is divided into three parts: Reading, Vocabulary, and Grammar. Part I (Reading) consists of forty-five multiple choice items in which five choices are given to complete a statement or to answer a question asked. Example: *He olvidado mi reloj; quiere Vd. decirme* (1) *cuántos años tiene?* (2) *a cuántos estamos del mes?* (3) *si hoy es sábado?* (4) *qué hora es?* (5) *qué hay?* Part II (Vocabulary) consists of forty items in which a choice is to be made from five numbered words which most nearly corresponds in meaning to the word at the head of the group. Example: *Alegre* (the head word) is to be matched with *contento*, *ligero*, *dulce*, *abuelo*, or *conocido*. Part III (Grammar) consists of forty items in which a choice is to be made from five Spanish translations of a blank which represents an English word, phrase, or clause. Example: *I am writing this letter so that you may know the news* is translated by "*Escribo esta carta para que,*" which is to be completed by one of the following five clauses: *sabías las noticias; sabrás las noticias; sepas las noticias; sabes las noticias; or supieses las noticias.*

The scoring of this test is by a rights key and the scoring formula used is that of rights minus wrongs divided by four. The test provides for

scaled scores ranging from a low of fourteen to a high of ninety-nine. Our minimum passing score is fifty-three, which was the lowest score made by our Spanish 2 students one year and, although the lowest score some years had been sixty-two, we have continued to use fifty-three as our minimum. We do allow incoming freshmen with two or more years of high school Spanish who score between fifty and fifty-two to enter the intermediate course making it clear to them that they do so at their own risk, and that they may, after a couple of weeks or so, go back to the beginning course if they find Spanish 3 too difficult. Our language requirement is met by the successful completion of six hours in one foreign language above the elementary level. Those incoming freshmen who must take both the elementary and the intermediate years of Spanish as a result of failure in the placement test do not lose any entrance credits in foreign language and they do receive college credit for both years of study of the language. In such situations the faculty must recognize that for ill-prepared incoming freshmen, two years of Spanish or other foreign language with a fair chance at derived pleasure and profit are preferable to one year of the more likely hell-bent-for-destruction experience. The great majority of our incoming freshmen with two or more years of high school Spanish do pass the placement test and thus enter the intermediate course. Those who score around eighty or more in the placement test may enter Spanish 5-6 or Spanish 11-12. This applies not only to incoming freshmen with two years of high school Spanish but also, in some cases, to students who have completed one year of elementary Spanish with us.

I should like now to present the results of our four years' experimentation with the placement test.¹

¹ When "5-6" appears in parentheses after a placement score, it means that a student with that score received the letter grade indicated in Spanish 5-6. When a placement test score appears more than once on a line, it refers to the number of students who received that score. If a student had more than two years of high school preparation in Spanish, it is so indicated, e.g., "3 yrs. H.S." or "4 yrs. H.S." When the words "not sent back" are used the meaning is that for some reason the student was not sent back to beginning Spanish though his score in the placement test was below the minimum passing score of 53.

CORRELATION OF SEMESTER GRADES EARNED IN SPANISH 3-4 (IN A FEW CASES SPANISH 5-6) WITH THE PLACEMENT TEST SCORES OF THE SAME STUDENTS THE PREVIOUS YEAR (*i.e.*, AT THE END OF THEIR ELEMENTARY YEAR OF SPANISH AT OBERLIN). NOTE THAT THESE STUDENTS HAD NO PREVIOUS HIGH SCHOOL SPANISH

Semester grade of "A"	Semester grade of "B"
99	81 (5-6)
85	79
83 (5-6)	76
80	75 (5-6), 75, 75, 75
78	71
77	70
76	69
69	67, 67
	66, 66, 66, 66, 66
Median—79	65, 65
Mean—81	63
Total A's—8	
% of total grades which were "A"—14%	Median—70
	Mean—69.2
	Total B's—20
	% of total grades which were "B"—35%
Semester grade of "C"	Semester grade of "D"
77 (5-6)	75
76 (5-6)	69
71	65
69, 69	63
68, 68	62, 62
63	61
62, 62	58, 58
61	55, 55, 55
59, 59	54
58	53, 53
Median—65.5	Median—61.5
Mean—66	Mean—60
Total C's—14	Total D's—15
% of total grades which were "C"—24.5%	% of total grades which were "D"—26.3%

In general, there is a good correlation between the score made on the placement test at the end of the first year and the semester grade of the second year. However, there are some special situations that may be noted:

1. Students with the placement test score of 69 received grades of A, B, C, and D in the second year.

2. Students with the placement test score of 76 received grades of A, B, and C.

3. Students with the placement test score of 63 received grades of B, C, and D.

4. One student who passed first-year Spanish and scored 52 in the placement test at the end of his first year received a grade of B in second-

year Spanish. On the other hand, another student who scored ten points higher on the placement test (62) flunked the elementary year in which he made that score, failed elementary Spanish the second time he took it and finally, on his third try, passed the course with a grade of D+.

CORRELATION OF SEMESTER GRADES EARNED IN SPANISH 3-4 (IN A FEW CASES SPANISH 5-6) WITH THE PLACEMENT TEST SCORES OF THE SAME STUDENTS WHO OFFERED TWO OR MORE YEARS OF HIGH SCHOOL SPANISH ON ADMISSION TO COLLEGE. WITH FEW EXCEPTIONS THE STUDENT MADE THE MINIMUM PASSING GRADE OF 53 OR BETTER AND EXCEPT WHERE INDICATED ALL STUDENTS HAD TWO YEARS OF SPANISH IN HIGH SCHOOL.

Semester grade of "A"	Semester grade of "B"
91 (5-6), 91 (4 yrs. H.S.)	87 (5-6)
86 (5-6; 3 yrs. H.S.)	76
82 (5-6; 4 yrs. H.S.)	73
77 (3 yrs. H.S.)	71
74 (5-6; 3 yrs. H.S.)	70 (3 yrs. H.S.), 70, 70, 70
70	68, 68
69	67, 67, 67, 67
63	65, 65, 65
	63, 63
Median—75.5	62, 62, 62
Mean—78.1	60
Total A's—9	58
% of total grades which were "A"—13%	56, 56
	55
	53
	Median—65
	Mean—65.6
	Total B's—28
	% of total grades which were "B"—40.5%
Semester grade of "C"	Semester grade of "D"
74 (3 yrs. H.S.)	61, 61
68 (3 yrs. H.S.)	59, 59, 59
65, 65	58
64	56
63	55
62	53
61	52, 52 (not sent back)
56, 56	48, 48 (not sent back)
55	44 (not sent back)
54	Median—55
53 (3 yrs. H.S.)	Mean—54.6
52 (3 yrs. H.S.; not sent back)	Total D's—14
50 (not sent back)	% of total grades which were "D"—20.2%
Median—61	
Mean—59.8	Semester grade of "F"
Total C's—15	69 (5-6; 3 yrs. H.S.)
% of total grades which were "C"—21.7%	55 (3 yrs. H.S.), 55
	52 (not sent back)

SEMESTER GRADES IN SPANISH 3-4 OF THOSE WHO PRESENTED TWO YEARS OF HIGH SCHOOL SPANISH ON ADMISSION TO COLLEGE, FAILED THE PLACEMENT TEST, TOOK ELEMENTARY SPANISH AT OBERLIN (PRESUMABLY THESE STUDENTS HAD THEY BEEN ADMITTED TO SPANISH 3-4 IMMEDIATELY AFTER HIGH SCHOOL, WOULD EITHER HAVE FAILED THE INTERMEDIATE YEAR OR DONE "D" WORK)

A's	Total: 1; % of total no. of grades which were "A"— 4.3%
B's	Total: 8; % of total no. of grades which were "B"—34.7%
C's	Total: 4; % of total no. of grades which were "C"—17.3%
D's	Total: 9; % of total no. of grades which were "D"—39.1%
F's	Total: 1; % of total no. of grades which were "F"— 4.3%

As in the case of the students who began their Spanish at Oberlin, we find that with those students with high school credits in Spanish (mostly two years) who passed the placement test in the fall of their freshman year, there is a good correlation between the score made on the placement test and the semester grade earned in the intermediate course. However, as with students who took all their Spanish at Oberlin, we find here too some special situations. People with the placement score of 52 received C-, D-, and F in the second year. Two with a score of 53 received B- and D-. One with a score of 55 received F whereas one with 56 and another with 58 received B+. People with a score of 63 received A, B, and C. One with a score of 44 who was not sent back to Spanish 1, received D- in the intermediate course, whereas another with a score of 49 who was sent back to Spanish 1 received a D- in the elementary course.

General Conclusions

1. Poorly prepared students (i.e., those who fail the placement test despite their having passed two years of high school Spanish) have an opportunity to get a fresh start and build a background for later work in the language. Extremes do show up, however. Some students in their second attempt at elementary Spanish don't do better than "D." And occasionally an "A" student, who develops into a Spanish major, comes out of this double exposure.

2. Excellently prepared students with two years of high school Spanish can go into a course above the 3-4 level, one more challenging to them than the intermediate course.

3. The intermediate course can be pitched to a somewhat higher level than would normally be possible or desirable, since most of the po-

tential "D" and "F" students have been sent back to the beginning course. This results in less boredom for well prepared students and less frustration for the ill prepared.

4. Students with three years of high school Spanish, who score slightly below the minimum passing grade in the placement test, should be encouraged to take the intermediate course rather than start all over again. The risk of boredom for such a student is too great to warrant his being placed in a class with students who have never before studied the language.

5. In general there are fewer failures and there is less frustration in the intermediate classes than was true in the pre-placement test era.

6. Student reaction to the placement tests and our method of interpreting the results seems on the whole to have been favorable.

* * *

As a postscript to this report we might add that we are not recommending one placement test above any others. The one we use is not infallible. It does not provide for oral-aural testing, and the oral facility of those students who may enter our course in Conversation and Composition after two years of high school Spanish is tested by personal interviews. Since our primary emphasis in the intermediate course is upon reading, the test we use covers enough aspects of the language learning situation to make it a useful tool for our purposes. That other types of test may be even more useful is entirely possible, but a discussion of this matter is beyond the intent and scope of this paper.

NORMAN P. SACKS

Oberlin College

Language and Library Science

LOOKING AHEAD" is the slogan of the purposeful young college men and women of today who enter the world of competition encountered by those who must earn a living. This is especially true of the students who are making their goal one of the professions—and librarianship in this modern age is one of the most interesting and vital because it, together with teaching, plays such an important rôle in forming the firm foundation for the education on which advancement in science, technical and industrial knowledge, and a broad cultural background is based. Such an education should be the birthright of every young American capable of receiving it.

During the war the importance of librarianship was proven again and again and the demand for skilled librarians was very great. Those with foreign languages at their command as well as subject knowledge and the ability to apply this to reference work often served as research aids to scientists and technologists doing important work under the pressure of emergency conditions. Many such individuals had been trained during a period when languages were more universally taught than they are now, and at present their ranks are being rapidly thinned by retirement and death. Present day life with its increasing demands and rapidly developing new sciences and skills needs such well trained persons to an even greater extent and one wonders if we are equipping our young people to carry on in the world of tomorrow as efficiently as we should. As far as language preparation is concerned the evidence at hand indicates that training is not adequate. Young people required to acquire a skill which is admittedly difficult ask continually "What practical use will it be?" "Will I be given preference in job selection if I have it?" This study of one profession's requirements give basis for the belief that preference would be given and, as this is a profession which, as has already been pointed out, is one vital to education and research as a whole, the subject merits our consideration.

Modern high school and college students analyze their interests and aptitudes as early as possible in order to determine the field in which they can be most effective. They then set about obtaining the education which will afford them the best equipment for it. Contrary to the belief of many, librarianship is one of those professions which benefit most from such an approach. It makes use of a broad background of knowledge derived from many disciplines. It requires specialization and there are many exciting fields from which to choose, depending on one's subject interest, such as science, business, law, medicine and the arts. Special libraries cry out for young people adequately prepared to render the utmost in processes and services which will make the content of those libraries useful.

A group of 36 experienced practicing librarians and library school teachers were called together at Princeton University in December, 1948, to study library school training as it existed and to make recommendations, not for themselves, but for future generations of students who enter these schools. It was their hope and belief that the librarian of tomorrow should be better equipped to meet the problems confronting all librarians than were those of their own generation. New and unusual demands arising as a result of the expanding needs of science, business, industry, law, medicine and the arts face us today and should be met effectively. The student should know of these challenging opportunities at that period in his life when he can most efficiently and economically prepare himself along those lines which are basic for several disciplines and in which it is difficult to acquire sufficient skill at a later date. A knowledge of languages is one of the requirements which fall into this category.

The Princeton Conference¹ made certain rec-

¹ Lancour, Harold (ed.), *Issues in library education: a report of the conference on library education*, Princeton University, December 11th and 12th, 1948. Council of National Library Associations, 1949, p. 5.

ommendations, i.e., "That there be established a joint committee on education for librarianship, for mutual exchange of information between library schools and various professional groups." If such a Joint Committee was appointed it was further recommended that: "A thorough survey be made by the committee to determine the most desirable educational preparation for special librarians, to serve as a guide to library schools in developing programs of training."

In January, 1949, following several preliminary conferences, the Council of National Library Associations agreed to create and sponsor a Joint Committee on Library Education. Subsequently the Committee set up a Subcommittee on Special Library Education including representatives from each of the subject areas which then seemed most important. Studies were made by librarians specializing in those subjects to determine what courses should be recommended to those intending to enter the library profession. It was not anticipated that every student would have all the background cited for each subject field, but it was recognized that those who had been so equipped would be given preference in the positions offering higher salaries. The first published report of the Subcommittee,² which appeared in 1954 after five years of study, includes this statement: "The earlier a student makes a decision on his course of study and plans for his future, the better his preparation will be." This 1954 article covered preparation for librarianship in the following fields: Finance, law, science and certain technical fields, medicine, music, theater and journalism. The proposals all include specific suggestions for desirable subject training. However, in studying the proposals it was soon evident that they included not only graduate, but undergraduate education. In no other area was this more evident than in the areas of language, including the proper use of the English language. The Committee's attention was drawn to this aspect of preparation for librarianship by the fact that adequate preparation in language was recommended in all the suggested curricula published in this report, and also for those in other subject areas now in preparation. Moreover, in the round table discussions held biannually where some of the

most important educators in the library field and prominent practicing librarians were encouraged to express their opinion freely, it was frequently brought out that in the college and university libraries, large public libraries, as well as special libraries including those of science and industry, training in modern foreign languages was mentioned as a desirable equipment from the employer's standpoint.

Discussion also brought out the fact that such preparation led to better use and understanding of the English language. The opinion was voiced again and again that better training in English grammar, spelling, and composition at the elementary school level be insisted upon. The elimination of several years of required Latin in high school as a preparation for college has resulted in a lack of ability on the part of those entering the professions to take up later the study of modern languages such as French, Italian, Spanish and Portuguese. Latin is also needed for a basic understanding and usage of an adequate vocabulary in our own language—English.

Having made, what at the moment seemed almost an alarming discovery in the face of the very inadequate opportunities for proper education in speaking and using languages given at present in the elementary and high schools in many geographic areas in this country, our next question was: "What can be done to better this situation which presents a challenge that should be met?"

We believe that the Committee's approach in making recommendations in the specialized areas of library education was both objective and factual and there are indications that our recommendations are receiving consideration by some of the important schools of library science. We also realized this method would be equally important in regard to language training. Therefore we have tried to examine as practically as possible, just what would be most useful from the employer's viewpoint in the application of language preparation to the requirements of the profession of librarianship in all aspects including the documentation and information services which are now required by

² "Education for Special Librarianship," *The Library Quarterly*, 1954, 24, p. 1.

many industrial and government organizations.

A questionnaire was therefore submitted to members of the Joint Committee on Library Education and its Sub-committee and the replies are analyzed below:

The practical uses of foreign languages in library work may be considered from two aspects: uses cutting in a plane through all types of libraries which might be considered under the heading of general procedures; uses of particular importance in special types of libraries.

I. General Procedures.

A. *Book selection, ordering.* All types of libraries, public, school, college and university as well as special libraries, require a knowledge of foreign languages in connection with their acquisition program. This is especially true because of the many interesting and scholarly works from other countries which are continually being added to the collections of all well rounded libraries. Some of the illustrated books for children are notable additions to the children's collections of our public library young people's rooms and our high school libraries. Even the first three classes of libraries must include books in French, German, Spanish, and, to some extent, Russian. Some libraries will wish to include items in the classical languages (Latin and Greek). The literature of other countries should be included in each of the above libraries as well as books on travel.

B. *Classifying and cataloging.* A knowledge of the above languages will be required in the processing of these books.

C. *The reference librarian* is frequently called upon to interpret and recommend good foreign books to the American reader. A reading knowledge of languages is necessary for this service.

D. *International relations.*

1. In America the librarian and his administrative assistants are continually asked to show visiting foreign experts and library students through the collections in American libraries. Frequently they are asked to plan periods of study and investigation in

their libraries. A speaking knowledge of some of the universally known foreign languages will be of inestimable value in establishing good working contacts with such visitors.

2. American librarians work abroad.

a. Consultants to libraries in other countries. Librarians and teachers in library schools are frequently asked to give advice and to survey libraries with a view to their reorganization.

b. Teaching appointments in other countries.

c. Staff appointments in U. S. Information libraries.

d. Fulbright—and other scholarships and fellowships for study in other countries.

e. International meetings, conferences and working institutes.

f. Library work for American branches of commercial concerns in other countries.

g. Government libraries overseas, including army, medical, health, science, and research.

II. Special Libraries.

Art and Architecture. Miss Eleanor Worfolk of the University of Pennsylvania School of Fine Arts Library says: "A librarian in the field of art and architecture must have a knowledge of foreign languages; a large library might need several with diverse language ability. A knowledge of Latin and Greek is essential with respect to classical material. Some of the best current material is coming from Europe. In art, Italian, French and German works are outstanding; in crafts, Italian and Scandinavian texts are invaluable. All these languages are useful in every type of activity in art and museum libraries. The Oriental and Slavic languages are useful especially in libraries and museums dealing with Oriental art where they are, of course, essential. Naturally librarians with excellent language knowledge have an advantage in job placement. Those with a knowledge of languages not generally known may be employed even if the subject field is not familiar to them."

Music. Mr. Edward T. Waters of the Music Division of the Library of Congress and the Dean of the Graduate School of Library Science of Chicago concur in the opinion that the knowledge of languages is extremely important in the librarian's research and professional work and in bibliographic and reference aid to others. In music their order of importance is: German, French, Italian, Spanish, etc. In certain music libraries these languages are a requirement for employment.

Science and Technology. This heading would include libraries in all types of chemistry, petroleum, aeronautics, nuclear physics, botany, bacteriology, zoology, and agriculture. Melvin Voight says: "Foreign language skills will be required for translating French, German, and Russian publications, and for searching the literature upon specific subjects in all the above special libraries. Reference works in these subjects, including their application to Public Health, may appear in any of these languages."

Libraries with Special Collections on Geography and Maps. A knowledge of several languages is desirable in order to meet the needs of these libraries efficiently. Mr. Bill M. Wood, Assistant Professor in Library Science and Map Librarian, University of Illinois, in an interesting discussion says: "Maps cover all areas: the most useful map of an area is likely to be in the language of the area. Therefore language knowledge is needed in cataloging, in acquiring maps from foreign countries and in the interpretation of the maps. Reference and detailed bibliographic work require an even more intensive skill with languages. A knowledge of German, French, and Spanish is useful. Russian is of ever increasing importance. Latin is important in a collection of the maps of the ancient world."

Law. Mr. Julius Marke, Professor and Librarian of the New York University Law School tells us: "Language skills are of great importance in legal research, especially in the field of comparative law. Many of the outstanding works in this field, including international law, have been written in German, French, Spanish, or Italian. For the proper understanding of Anglo-American law it is necessary to read foreign language evaluation of this field; also many of the primary sources are written in

Latin, Law-French, French, and German. This need for language skill is characteristic of most University Law Libraries and of quite a few of the Bar Libraries of this country. In building up a Latin-American collection of law, a knowledge of Spanish is of great help."

Business and Finance. This includes libraries and reference services for banks, brokerage houses, investment firms, investment departments of large insurance companies, firms of accountants, publishers of financial services, and financial newspapers and magazines. Miss Eleanor Cavanaugh, capable and experienced head of the library of Standard and Poor, New York, states: "It is obvious that most such firms would have international relations and would require a knowledge of the foreign publications in their own and related fields. Knowledge of foreign languages would be helpful for purposes of acquisition, classification, searching interpretation and translation of letters from other countries. In order of their importance the languages are French, German and Spanish."

Journalism. News of the present day is unquestionably international in scope. In the rapid interchange of information now possible, with the many advances in methods of communications, and with the necessary subsequent retrieval of materials in the libraries of newspapers and magazines, a knowledge of foreign languages is essential. French, German, and Russian are especially helpful in the field of research. Mr. Chester Lewis, Librarian of the *New York Times*, has frequently emphasized this fact.

Theatre. There is nothing in English which compares with the French and Danish books in the area of the film. Mr. George Freedley, well known curator of the theatre collection of the New York Public Library, says: "Modern European languages are in constant use in all our preparation and research work in the theatre library field. Some of our most important bibliographic and reference aids are in French and German. We use French and German most and are beginning to find Italian assuming almost equal proportions because of the upsurge of bibliographic and historic research aids in that language. We find Russian is about fourth in importance and Spanish fifth. In the New York Public Library we have cards in our cata-

log not only in all Western European languages, but in the Cyrillic and Oriental alphabets as well. We are fortunate in having in the New York Public Library a large staff with many linguistic skills which we can employ when foreign visitors arrive and our staff is inadequate on the language side."

Medicine, Pharmacy, Dentistry, and Allied Sciences. All libraries of any size in these subject areas are international in scope. Most of them offer a bibliographic service; some a translation service; if the translation is not actually done within the department, it may need to be checked in the library for accuracy of citation, or of interpretation. German, French, Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, Russian, Polish, Dutch, the Scandinavian languages and even Japanese are useful, probably in the order listed. A recently devised operation for the treatment of coronary thrombosis for more than a year was described in the medical literature only in Italian. In the pharmaceutical library, research in the patent field is frequently required to locate English material and that published in other countries. For a historical collection a knowledge of Latin is essential as much of the material published during the 14th and 15th centuries appeared in that language or in Greek—and this is a fascinating area in itself. Miss Mary Louise Marshall of Tulane University Medical School Library, author of the curricula designed to prepare librarians for work in the libraries under discussion here says: "Fourteen medical librarians of varied training and experience in libraries of different size and kinds submitted ideas which are here incorporated into a statement which basically reflects their points of view . . . All consultants stressed the importance of the study of foreign languages. If Latin did not form part of the high school background, it should be taken in college, at least to the extent of two courses. Of modern languages, opinion favored the study of several rather than intensive study of only one or two. German and French were the languages of first choice, with particular attention to

courses in scientific German and French. Spanish, Italian, and Russian were also considered desirable, and the usefulness of some knowledge of Greek was suggested by several."

Teaching and Editing in the Library Field. The teacher of cataloging and classification in any library school must have a knowledge of foreign languages in order to direct the students' work with foreign titles (French, German, Spanish, and Italian). Some knowledge of the Cyrillic alphabet is also necessary for this purpose. Editors of professional library journals find knowledge of these languages very useful. One should be able to know enough to recognize errors in titles, case, and capitalization when material is written or quoted in other languages. Correspondence with editors, publishers and writers from other countries require a knowledge of modern languages.

It is evident that the modern library is looking for alert, intelligent and well educated young people at the professional level. This is an expanding profession. Few realize, for instance, that the American Library Association has between 20,000 and 21,000 members. The Special Library Association approximately 5,000, the Medical Library Association between 1,200 and 1,300 members, and the Association of Law Libraries, another highly specialized field, approximately 600. These do not cover, but are only indicative of, the thousands of librarians at work. They represent only a few of the types of special libraries in which interesting work beckons to the young person with a special subject interest. Good training in reading and speaking languages is a type of pre-professional training much needed for such positions. Adequate facilities to meet this demand are not available in many of our schools.

EILEEN R. CUNNINGHAM

Librarian Emerita

Vanderbilt University School of Medicine

L. MARGUERIETE PRIME

Librarian

American College of Surgeons

* * *

When we are understood, it is proof that we speak well.

* * *

—MOLIÈRE

Constitution of the National Federation of Modern Language Teachers Associations*

I. The name of this organization shall be The National Federation of Modern Language Teachers Associations, Incorporated.

II. Its object shall be the promotion and improvement of modern foreign language teaching throughout the United States by drawing together in mutual helpfulness all the organizations working toward this end; by the publication of *The Modern Language Journal*; and by such other activities as may seem desirable.

III. Members. The Federation shall be composed of associations of teachers of modern foreign languages, state, regional or national. There shall be two classes of member-associations, regular and affiliated.

(a) Regular member-associations shall be (1) charter members; (2) associations accepted on the basis of substantial support of The National Federation of Modern Language Teachers Associations and *The Modern Language Journal*, as determined by the Executive Committee; (3) national foreign language associations admitted on other basis than that of members, and limited to one representative of each.

(b) Affiliated association members may be admitted by the Executive Committee. They shall have all the privileges of the Federation except representation on the Executive Committee.

(c) The following associations are charter members of the Federation: The Central States Modern Language Teachers Association; The Middle States Association of Modern Language Teachers; The New England Modern Language Association; The New Jersey Modern Language Teachers' Association; and The New York State Federation of Foreign Language Teachers.

(d) The other associations, now regular members of the Federation are: The American Association of Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese; The American Association of Teachers of French; The American Association of Teachers of German; The American Association of Teachers of Italian; The Pennsylvania State Modern Language Association; and The American Association of Teachers of Slavic and Eastern European Languages.

IV. Affiliated and additional regular (constituent) member associations may be admitted by a two-thirds vote of the members of the Executive Committee present at any regular meeting. The Executive Committee shall fix the basis of representation of such regular member associations.

V. (a) Administration and control shall be vested in the Executive Committee, which shall be composed of representatives of the constituent associations, elected by these associations as follows: The Central States Modern Languages Teachers Association, four representatives; The Middle States Association of Modern Language Teachers, one representative; The New England Modern Language Association, one representative; The New Jersey Modern

Language Teachers' Association, one representative; The New York State Federation of Foreign Language Teachers, one representative; The American Association of Teachers of Spanish and Portuguese, one representative; The American Association of Teachers of French, one representative; The American Association of Teachers of German, one representative; The American Association of Teachers of Italian, one representative; The Pennsylvania State Modern Language Association, one representative; The American Association of Teachers of Slavic and Eastern European Languages, one representative. In addition to the foregoing delegates, there shall be in the Executive Committee two seats, to be occupied by the Managing Editor of *The Modern Language Journal* and the Business Manager of *The Modern Language Journal*, who shall have all the privileges of the aforesaid representative elected delegates, with the proviso that no one member shall have two votes by virtue of being both a representative elected delegate and either Managing Editor of *The Modern Language Journal* or Business Manager of *The Modern Language Journal*.

(b) The members of the Executive Committee shall be elected for four years, and shall serve until their respective successors have been elected and have qualified. Elections to fill vacancies due to resignation or other causes shall be for the unexpired term.

(c) The Secretary-Treasurer shall receive each year for the National Federation from the Business Manager the net surplus due the National Federation from the operations of *The Modern Language Journal*, after all expenses connected therewith, including the honoraria of the Managing Editor and the Business Manager, and Social Security taxes, have been paid.

(d) The Executive Committee shall meet annually at the time and place of The Modern Language Association of America meeting, unless otherwise agreed by the Executive Committee in advance. Notices are to be sent out by the Secretary at least thirty days in advance of the meeting.

(e) A majority shall constitute a quorum of the Executive Committee.

(f) The duties of the Executive Committee shall be to direct and control the publication of *The Modern Language Journal*, and to take such other measures as are in the interest of the National Federation, including the authorization of the investment of the permanent funds

* As amended by the Executive Committee December 31, 1956. Amendments approved by two-thirds of the constituent member-associations and officially declared adopted at meeting of Executive Committee, December 29, 1957. The Association was incorporated under the laws of the District of Columbia in 1954. The Executive Committee acts as the Board of Directors of the Corporation.

of the National Federation, and the arrangements for representation of the Federation at the meetings of national or international educational associations.

(g) The members of the Executive Committee may vote through an alternate or by duly authorized proxy.

(h) Whenever it shall prove necessary for the Executive Committee to vote on a proposition by mail, the Secretary, in reporting the vote to the Executive Committee, shall tabulate each member's vote under the member's name, in order that there may be no chance for error.

VI. (a) The officers of the Executive Committee shall be a President, Vice-President, and Secretary-Treasurer, elected by the Executive Committee. They shall also serve as the officers of the National Federation. Their duties shall be those usually connected with their respective offices, and such other duties as may be assigned to them by the Executive Committee. They shall serve until the completion of their respective terms and until their successors have been elected and have qualified. The Executive Committee may also elect an Honorary President.

(b) The terms of the President and Vice-President shall be for one year. They shall not be eligible for immediate reelection to the same office. The term of the Secretary-Treasurer shall be for four years. The Vice-President shall also be known as President-Elect and shall automatically succeed to the Presidency at the conclusion

of his term as Vice-President.

(c) Persons not members of the Executive Committee shall be eligible for election as President, Vice-President, or Secretary-Treasurer. Persons so elected shall have all the rights and responsibilities of regular members of the Executive Committee, including the privilege of voting.

(d) Vacancies among the officers occurring as the result of resignation, incapacity to serve, or death shall be filled by the Executive Committee, either at a regular annual meeting or, in case of an emergency, by mail ballot. Persons so elected shall serve out the unexpired term of the officer replaced.

VII. The necessary expenses of the National Federation shall be paid by the Secretary-Treasurer out of the uninvested funds in his possession.

VIII. This Constitution may be amended by the following procedure:

a. The proposed amendment shall be approved by a majority of the Executive Committee.

b. The proposed amendment, thus approved, shall be printed in *The Modern Language Journal* and referred for action to the constituent associations of the Federation.

c. The proposed amendment shall become effective when two-thirds of the constituent associations shall have communicated their approval to the Secretary-Treasurer of the National Federation.

* * *

If we study language merely in its outer forms, grammatical structures, and social systems, separate *langue* from *langage*, and attempt to explain the abstract *langage* out of itself, by "regarding it as a dictionary, all of whose identical reprints have been distributed among the individuals of the community," we shall fall into the same error as the geographer who thinks he can understand the structure or the relief of a continent or landscape without regard to meteorological and climatic factors.

This dry linguistic study that shuts out the air and the light, forgets that even within closed social and national language communities, even below the uniform grammatical and lexicographical roofs there are the atmosphere and the atmospheric phenomena of inner language. How many styles and groups of styles float about within the German language at any given epoch; and how many of them are not socially, or economically, or politically conditioned, but conditioned by sentiments, tastes, and art forms.

—KARL VOSSLER

* * *

Notes and News

A "First Award" Italian TV Program*

As a teacher of a living language and a "missionary" for Italian language and culture, I planned and presented in the spring of 1956 on Chicago's Educational Television Station, a ten program series called "Ecco l'Italia."

I. Objectives:

My objectives were twofold:

- 1) To equip the prospective American tourist to Italy with the rudiments of the Italian language.
- 2) To foster a better understanding of Italian civilization.

In deciding upon these objectives, I did so in terms of a few basic assumptions:

- 1) Since the program was to be viewed from 8:00 to 8:30 in the evening, I assumed that the audience would be the family.
- 2) Since the course was not being offered for credit, I could only hope that my TV students would study the syllabus we had provided, but certainly I could not assume that they would do any written homework.
- 3) Since the series was aimed at an unidentified group, I could not be sure of audience continuity; therefore I planned each lesson as a unit, translating questions and answers from the Italian into English.

II. Procedure:

In introducing the series I instructed the audience in the method to be used and advised them of the manner in which they could best participate. I approached my students directly, employing an oral method, which enabled them to speak as they started learning by ear and by imitation rather than the written word. They learned by imitating me.

The vocabulary was introduced in a context and it was suggested that the viewer apply what he learned in a context meaningful to him. Whatever grammar could be mastered in a short ten lesson series was learned in the same manner as the vocabulary. The materials used on the program were especially chosen to acquaint the student with contemporary Italian life as well as Italian traditions and mores. I emphasized the fun of learning Italian and the feeling of achievement that would result. The syllabus was used as a guide during the program as well as for review purposes. It also served as a "preview of coming attractions."

III. Evaluation:

If one can base an evaluation of a program on public reaction, then I believe my objectives were achieved. Public response was most generous, enthusiastic and lasting. I received cards as late as October of that year from former TV students touring Italy:

from Venice: "Your lessons in Italian—on TV helped us a great deal during our visit in Italy."

from Genoa: "Saluti da Genova, from two TV students."

The response both by phone and by letter manifested the filling of a need in the community among Italians as well as non-Italians. Members of a sorority wrote that they met regularly on Monday evenings to play bridge. After viewing

"Ecco l'Italia," they had decided to put aside their bridge game for ten weeks and study Italian together. There were letters from students of all ages. One writer confessed that "Mondays at 8:00 P.M. is the sacred hour. You have replaced 'I Love Lucy.' Not only do we adults at home enjoy you, but my five year old nephew simply adores you. Which only proves your point that languages should be taught to youngsters."

A "senior" student who gave her age as 72, said "It has been a real pleasure to listen to you these past weeks teaching us so many interesting things about Italy, in her own language. It has quickened my own notice and interest in Italian things. I have done all my work in the study-book 'aloud' and have been quite proud of my accent until the lesson hour came and I found myself in error in several cases. But I think if we were to have ten more lessons I would soon be able to make corrections in sound, by listening closely to 'teacher.' I am eager to retain what I have just learned. Will you please give me the name of an easy book on Italy with a vocabulary so I can study on, by myself, a bit longer."

To the American tourist, preparing to travel in Italy, the program gave new confidence. "My wife and I plan to fly to Milan next spring and tour Italy" one man wrote, "We thoroughly enjoyed the series and now feel better prepared for our stay in Italy."

There were many who wanted to make arrangements for private lessons because they could not "conveniently attend classes at school." There was a note from a foreman in the Gary Steel Mills who said that he could better communicate with his workers as a result of the series, for the workers spoke only Italian. Another letter said, "Intended only to turn on for a few minutes as Monday is the night for the family to get together and master the 'Little Fooler' but found it so interesting, we all sat in rapt attention for the full one-half hour and for the whole series."

That the program served the newcomer from Italy as well as the American seeking to learn Italian is indicated in the following quotation, "I came to America from Italy only a few months ago and speak very little English. I find this program helps me with my English." Another recent arrival, an Italian family, welcomed "Ecco l'Italia" into their home. Every Monday evening, the small children would gather around their grandmother, and holding her hand would say "Andiamo in Italia." Some young people of Italian origin reported that they had never been interested in studying the language of their parents—until

* The national award, for the best continuous teaching over television in 1956, was given by the Institute for Education by Radio-Television of Ohio State University, Columbus. In awarding the citation to "Ecco l'Italia," the judges said:

"The program discloses a masterful handling of a language. The teacher, revealing a contagious personality, inspires as well as teaches. The production enhances but does not intrude on the program, and the viewer is free to follow the clear and succinct presentation. Added to this is an excellent audience involvement which places the program in a unique and enviable position."

the TV series started; many said they had learned the dialect at home but were now interested in learning the correct Italian; others said this was a good opportunity to review what they had learned years ago.

Two young ladies, new Americans from Scotland, chose the verse form to express their enthusiasm for the program series:

"It isn't often that we can boast
of learning a lot in a ten week course
from the first of the series
to the end of the line
'twas interesting and well spent time.

So while we're sorry
to see it end
Our study guide will remain
a friend."

One thing essential to all Foreign Language television instruction is that it must stress the spoken language; therefore I employed techniques appropriate both to this objective and to the new audio-visual medium. Many varieties of audio-visual aids were used to enable the viewer to associate language sounds directly with their meaning as represented visually. It is important to remember that an audience listening to TV expects to see what is being said. In our programs, the printed word appeared on the lower part of the screen, so that hearing and seeing occurred at the same time—as one observes in a foreign language film. These techniques can be viewed on a Kinescope of the fifth lesson, available by writing directly to Roosevelt University, Chicago 5, Illinois.

NORMA V. FORNACIARI

Roosevelt University

Recipients of the Degree of Ph.D. in FL Education from The Ohio State University

Harry J. Russell (Spanish)

Trends and Techniques in the Construction of Reading Materials for the Modern Foreign Languages, 1938.

Joseph V. Thomas (German)

The Nature and Effectiveness of Special Methods Courses in the Teaching of Modern Foreign Languages, 1952.

Kenneth C. Miller (Spanish)

The Teaching and Learning of Modern Foreign Languages in Colleges and Universities for Negroes, 1953.

Edward D. Allen (French)

Some Contributions of Foreign Folklore to the Secondary School Curriculum, 1954.

Kathleen A. Easling (French-Spanish)

A Study of Foreign Language Programs in Campus Laboratory Schools, 1957.

* * *

Mathematics is a language—one of many that human ingenuity has devised. But *not all language is, or ought to be, mathematics*. Wishful thinking is bad wishing and bad thinking. This valuable observation does not destroy the validity or the desirability of wishing. I have known some scientists, mathematicians among them, who scoffed at poetry because it dealt in matter that did not lend itself to proof. Mathematics, as a language, had played its rôle in misleading them. They seemed actually to believe that what one cannot count is not there. They talked as if they believed that because you cannot prove the superiority of one work of art to another, therefore art means less than mathematics. It was as if they had never heard of incommensurables.

—ISAAC GOLDBERG

* * *

Book Reviews

RAT, MAURICE, *Dictionnaire des locutions françaises*. Paris: Librairie Larousse, 1957, pp. xv+430.

This book is so broad and varied in content, it derives from so many different levels and areas of language that it is difficult to place it or peg it for review purposes. It is obviously intended as a reference work, but its material is so rich and it opens so many perspectives that its intrinsic interest is at least as great as its manifest usefulness—*Le plaisant, le solide et l'utile*.

Let us start at the lowest level, the useful. The serious student of French and especially the teacher is plagued by three general questions: How do you say . . . ? What does (this) mean? Why (or how) does it mean . . . ? The present compilation answers these questions for some 4,000 French expressions (*locutions*), alphabetically arranged by keywords, with cross index and author index. M. Rat mentally classifies his *locutions* in three broad categories, according to their general *provenance*. The first are those surviving from the earlier language because of their form, their expressiveness or picturesqueness. (La Bruyère might have said *leur suc*.) The second type are those which, whatever their popular origin and vogue, owe their persistent fortune largely to literary adaptation and diffusion or perhaps even more to the literary form in which they have been preserved and communicated (e.g., *les neiges d'antan*, *attacher le gilet* and *pendre la sonnette au chat*, *retourner à ses moutons*, *les moutons de Panurge*, *une âme moutonnaire*, etc.). The third and last class comprise anecdotic expressions, real or fancied "historical" allusions and "historic" sayings, which, as our author takes pains to point out, may or may not have been actually said. (Cf. L. Hourticq, *Les Mots historiques qui n'ont pas été prononcés*.) The colorful myth is preferable to the bald, dull fact. *La brioche légendaire vaut mieux que le pain de ménage*. In such cases, *tant pis*—or should we say *tant pire?*—*pour l'histoire!*

The first category, the older expressions, are likely to be the most picturesque and, by the fact of their sturdy survival, the most vigorous; they may offer the added attraction of successive deformations and misinterpretations undergone *en route*. It is curious to notice that such expressions often contain simple, short, even monosyllabic terms. (One thinks of Churchill's: "Short words are best and the old words when short are best of all.") The second category is by its very nature richest in literary use, allusion and suggestion. The last group seems perhaps most vivid and living—has the strongest "human interest"—through association or identification with storied characters of history and legend. All three groups, interwoven as they are here, form a very rich and handsome tapestry.

The numerous illustrations from literature, history, anecdote, mythology, legend, folklore and the inevitable *chansons* provide not only a constant delight but they con-

tribute to the solidity of the work which is buttressed by sources, derivations, variations, etc. M. Rat draws copiously from classical antiquity and finds identical or analogous forms in other western languages. (A few of these last are a little quaint.) The solid and the pleasant or agreeable are here abundantly on every page. The author speaks convincingly and without pedantry; he has that refreshing quality which has become increasingly rare and correspondingly precious in the present world: a mature and urbane wit with a dash of Attic salt.

The reviewer has a confession and a recommendation to make. This review has been unseasonably delayed largely because of the absorbing nature of the book and because of the numerous byways it led me to explore—with great profit, be it said. For the recommendation, this work is a *vade-mecum* or what should be called an "elbow book," one to be kept ready and immediately at hand, alongside dictionaries, encyclopedia, Bulfinch, Guerlac, Bartlett, Fowler, etc.

Category: Indispensable. Rating: A+.

JOSEPH F. JACKSON

The University of Illinois

ZEYDEL, EDWIN H., *Poems of Goethe*. University of North Carolina Studies in the Germanic Languages and Literatures. Number 20. Chapel Hill, 1957. Pp. xii+126. Paper \$3.50.

Poems of Goethe is a welcome sequel to the widely acclaimed *Goethe the Lyrist*. Its sixty odd poems increase to some one hundred and sixty Zeydel's new translations of Goethe's poems facing the originals. Over one-half of the three score poems in the new volume represent the yield of the last twenty years of the poet's life, since Goethe's later lyrical output is less well known in the English-speaking world. The rest span the years from 1769 to 1777 and from 1803 to 1807.

As in *Goethe the Lyrist*, variety abounds in the companion piece. In it the lyrical and the philosophical poem, the ballad and the idyl, the epigram and the elegy, the aphorism and the sonnet, with their array of forms, rhymes, rhythms, and themes, all find a place.

The poems are arranged in six chapters, representing as many stages in the poet's development. The early stages reflect Goethe's frivolous vein of the rococo period, the flowering of his genuine song, and the subsequent effervescent revolt of the genius against tradition and reason. Chapters II, III and IV mirror the Northerner's growing appreciation for the dignity of nature, the influence of Italy and its classical associations. The concluding sections reveal a deepening interest in the wisdom of the East and the septuagenarian's continuing sensitivity to the stirrings in man and the world about him.

The principles of translation laid down in Zeydel's first volume of Goethe poems are also observed with care in the second. Not only are the renditions here accurate and complete as regards details of substance, form and style, but they reproduce with an innate felicity the simplicity and the naturalness of the language of the originals. The results are particularly pleasing in such poems as "Hatem" and "Mignon 2."

An introduction of fifteen pages reckons with the latest Goethe scholarship and combines an excellent biographical sketch with a running commentary on each of the poems. An appended list of musical settings adds to the authoritativeness of the volume whose place of regard beside *Goethe the Lyrist* is assured.

J. ALAN PFEFFER

The University of Buffalo

HALLAMORE, G. JOYCE AND JETTER, MARIANNE R., *Am Kreuzweg*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1957, pp. x, 285. \$3.75.

Five of the six selections presented here are good examples of what modern German writers can produce, and, carefully handled by an instructor, will enable the student to catch something of the spirit which moves the authors and their characters. The editors say in their introduction that this collection is suitable for third or fourth semester classes. It is doubtful that third semester students will have sufficient linguistic background to get out of the material what they should, with the possible exceptions of Ernst Wiechert's *Die Mutter* and Alfred Polgar's *Cora. Apollonia*, by Bernt von Heiseler, is too dull to excite real interest, and while *Der Dritte*, by Hanna Stephan, is an excellent story with keen psychological insight, it is too subtle for most students to see the fine points without having to translate all of it in class with the assistance of the instructor. The two selections by Bergengruen, *Die drei Falken* and *Die letzte Reise*, are of the high literary quality one expects from the author, but are much too difficult. Even fourth semester students will have their work cut out for them.

It is unfortunate that the weakest selection should be the first in the book. Its vagueness and predilection for long descriptive passages, charming as they may be for an adult, are not likely to fire students with enthusiasm for what is to come.

The introductions are long and detailed and for the most part helpful. *Die drei Falken* gives the editors the opportunity to write a short essay on falconry, which is interesting, but not necessary for the understanding of the story. The introduction to *Die letzte Reise* consists for the most part of a brief biography of Winckelmann, which is useful background material but will mean little to the average second year student. One serious error appears in the editors' discussion on the *Weltanschauung* of the authors. Many of the words in the quotations used to illustrate the principles and beliefs of the authors are missing from the vocabulary.

There are relatively few typographical errors, and the makeup of the text is generally attractive. Footnotes are numerous, in fact, in the Bergengruen stories there are too many, but this is inevitable with material which involves

matters so far removed from the sphere of the average sophomore. It should be pointed out that the Belgian Congo is not a Belgian colony in South Africa (footnote 18, p. 68).

The book has value as a text for a brief and reasonably advanced study of the modern *Novelle*, but as a second year text its advantages are rather dubious.

IAN C. LORAM

Cornell University

MEZZACAPPA, ANTONIO L., *Elementary Spanish*. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1957, 306 p.

Elementary Spanish is a grammar of the traditional type for beginners at the college level. Although the author states that it can be completed in one semester, the amount of grammar and vocabulary presented seem to belie this statement. It consists of twenty-seven lessons, of which the first two deal chiefly with pronunciation; four lessons of review exercises; an appendix; a glossary of grammatical terms; and two vocabularies. In addition to the usual verb paradigms, the appendix also includes a valuable list of verbs with the prepositions they take when followed by a dependent infinitive. The glossary of grammatical terms, while containing some over-simplified definitions, might prove very useful to the student who has had little contact with formal grammar.

Each lesson begins with grammatical explanations, with examples following the rules. Then there is a reading passage, preceded by approximately a one-page vocabulary list. The exercises at the end of each lesson provide ample vocabulary and grammar drill.

While I prefer a lesson arrangement which begins with a dialogue or a reading selection in which are exemplified the grammar and usage to be taken up in that particular lesson, Dr. Mezzacappa's text does have merit in that it presents an extensive vocabulary and quickly prepares the student for reading of standard Spanish prose. In the Preface, the author states this as one of his aims.

Other good features are the early introduction of the subjunctive and the treatment of each topic as completely as possible in one place, "in the conviction that it can be grasped more readily than it could be if scattered over many pages." The sections on the articles, infinitives, preterite and imperfect, and time sequence are excellent.

My criticism concerns mainly the pronunciation treated in the first two lessons. *Desde, es, en, entienden* should not have appeared as examples of the open *e* as pronounced in closed syllables, for the *e* is closed in syllables ending in *n, s, d, x*, and *z*. Further, the Spanish *o* is open in an accented position between an *a* and an *r* or *l*. Dr. Mezzacappa indicated a closed pronunciation of the *o* in *ahora*, such as in *como* or *modo*. (See Tomás Navarro, *Manual de Pronunciación Española*.) I feel it is misleading to state that the Spanish *i* is pronounced as the *t* in the English word *tail*, that the Spanish *d* is pronounced as the *d* in the English word *dental*, and that the *r* and *rr* have similar pronunciations to those in the English words *run* and *arrival*.

My perusal revealed an error in printing on page 206: *la señor* for *la señora*.

While this could be an uninteresting text for the ad-

vanced student, I feel that it would serve as a good reference grammar for the beginner.

TERESE E. KLINGER

Wright Junior College
Chicago, Illinois

ANDERSON, RUTH MATILDA, *Costumes Painted by Sorolla in His Provinces of Spain*. New York: Hispanic Society of America, 1957, 198 pp. \$4.00.

Anyone who visits the building in upper Manhattan housing the Hispanic Society of America will be delighted with the magnificent murals by Sorolla. These fourteen gorgeous pictures, measuring eleven and a half feet in height, present in glowing colors the countrymen of eleven different Spanish provinces and a group of Portuguese.

Six of these are reproduced in the book. The one for Aragón is in colors and serves as the frontispiece. In fact, there are 108 illustrations and two maps.

The book is divided into nine chapters, each one dealing with a different region of Spain. Most of the types described are the workers of the field and seashore engaged in their various activities, vocational and recreational. Several religious processions are described. The section on the parade of the bullfighters in Sevilla goes into interesting details with reference to the costuming of the different types of toreros.

Miss Anderson bases her comments not only on the canvases in the hall of the Hispanic Society, but also on oil paintings, water colors and sketches in museums in Madrid and Bilbao. A great amount of painstaking research has gone into this very attractive, informative and interesting book.

THEODORE HUEBENER

Board of Education
New York City

Another "Circling the Globe" Spanish Record.

Wilmac Records, 921 East Green St., Pasadena, Cal., has just put on the market Spanish, Vol. III, CGS 108, with libretto giving full text and translation in English (\$5.95). Packaged in protective polyethylene inner sleeve, in crush-proof carton, this latest record contains talks on (Side I) Cuba, Venezuela and Puerto Rico; (Side II) Salamanca, Sevilla, Barcelona and Madrid. The seven speakers, 4 men and 3 women, speak for a total of about 45 minutes, on a great diversity of subjects. The young man from Camagüey, the son of a farmer who intends to enroll in the university, describes the activities of a farm in Ciego de Ávila. Seventeen year old Manuela Ibarra of Venezuela, daughter of a country doctor, takes an exciting trip into the interior of the country to spend her vacation: speeding bus, floods, snakes, etc. More breath-taking is the description of "pesca submarina," deep-sea diving and fishing off the coast of Playa Luquillo, not far from San Juan, described by Puerto Rican Francisco Marrero. The four Spaniards are also young people yearning to tell something about their city. Juan García of San Sebastián is a student at Salamanca and speaks of this city and its historical attractions. In Seville we meet María del Carmen López García who speaks with the "s," attends a "Colegio de Monjas" and plans to be a

tour guide in her native city. We learn much about modern social customs among "novios" in Barcelona through a law student in Barcelona University; and Toledo is presented to us through a Valencian-born young lady who studies "ciencias exactas" at the University of Madrid.

The first thing that catches our eye, or better out ear, in these seven talks, is the great number of customs that are presented to the listener. The scene changes in every speech from the farm to a muddy road, to the bottom of the Caribbean, to the university life in an ancient Spanish city, or traveling via scooter in the Balearic Islands, to Moorish narrow streets in southern Spain, the "Wat," a dancing joint in Barcelona, the sereno, to the Castilian plains between Madrid and Toledo.

This Wilmac Record offers an excellent opportunity to hear Spanish pronounced somewhat different in various parts of the Hispanic world. Like a Yankee compared to a southerner from sure'nough Alabama, the "vasco" of San Sebastián speaks with a different accent from the "sevillana." And yet all these intonations and accents constitute the Spanish language. They are peculiarities which the student of Spanish should hear and recognize. For these reasons this record is suitable for advanced students, for language laboratory study, even in courses in phonetics. It may also be used for extracurricular listening, for mere enjoyment alone, for comprehension or cultural enrichment. It may also be used for individual study at home or may be adopted as a regular class assignment. Wilmac Record Spanish III is a thoughtfully prepared presentation, a youthful approach to learn Spanish, with clear, natural and informal speech. The vocabulary used is practical and useful; perhaps at times too colloquial. Certain peculiar phrases among the Latin American speakers may be considered "americanismos." Not all teachers will agree, however, with "soy nacido" said by the Cuban, in contrast to "nací" by the Spaniard. Or "carro" for "automóvil" or "coche" used in Venezuela. Other strange phrases: "Toda la población estaba un poco excitada." "Decidimos que tomaríamos el avión."

The "Circling the Globe" foreign language records by Wilmac have already made a profound impact in the teaching of French, German and Spanish in the United States. Spanish Volume III is a welcome addition to the series.

JOSÉ SÁNCHEZ

University of Illinois

KNAUER, KARL, *Vulgarfranzösisch*. München: Max Hueber, 1954.

Vulgarfranzösisch by Professor Karl Knauer of the University of Münster bears the subtitle "Characteristics and Tendencies of Present-day French Vocabulary."

Professor Knauer's ostensible purpose is to relate these characteristics and tendencies to the restlessness or *inquiétude* which he calls the key idea of recent decades in France as in the rest of Europe.

The title, *Vulgar French*, derives from the observation of similarities between the French of the last century and the Latin of the late Vulgar Latin period. The similarity is evident not only in the coining of new words and the readiness with which these coinings find acceptance but also in the reluctance common to Classic Latin and Classic

French in accepting such new words.

We are not primarily interested in Herr Knauer's exposé of the development of philosophical *inquiétude* to which he devotes the first pages of his small volume. The number and character of the authors he quotes are sufficient to prove his point—a point which anyone familiar with French literature and life since Romanticism would grant him immediately.

We are concerned with the translation of *inquiétude* into the field of linguistic criticism. Here Professor Knauer reviews the constantly increasing interest of the general reader in questions of language, an interest evidenced by columns devoted to such questions in dailies such as *le Temps*, *le Figaro* and *l'Oeuvre* as well as in weeklies like *les Nouvelles Littéraires* and *Point de vue—Images du monde*.

On pages 60–61 of his book Professor Knauer presents a chronological list of works dealing with the "Language Crisis since 1900." Named are some sixty works by forty authors. All appeared between 1908 and 1953, nearly half of them since 1940. Included are government publications such as a *Code de terminologie grammaticale*, *Essai de co-ordination* issued by the Belgian Ministry of Public Instruction in 1949, both the 1932 and 1953 editions of Étienne LeGal's *Écrivez . . . ! N'écrivez pas . . . !*, the articles of Lancelot (Abel Hermant) of *le Temps* collected in book form along with authoritative works like Albert Dauzat's *La langue française d'aujourd'hui*.

Professor Knauer readily acknowledges the difficulties inherent in the second phase of his opus: the attempt to show that word choice and word formation reflect the basic philosophy of French culture. We can follow his attempt by reviewing his Table of Contents, arranged in outline form. Under the heading, *the Charm of quantitative Experience*, he speaks briefly of the *philosophes* of the eighteenth century as forerunners in a mechanistic approach to speech, now culminating in cybernetics. He considers the formation of new words according to traditional principles, then spends nearly a quarter of his volume in listing and commenting on words: those formed by prefixes and suffixes, compounds, foreign importations and adaptations, mistaken formations and the vogue of abbreviations.

As the topic of his second section Herr Knauer has chosen *the Prestige of Performance*. Here he deals with words developed and used from a sense either of snobbishness or pseudo-scientific exactness, the substitution of *consommateur* for *client*, for example. The English word, *performance*, introduced into French as a horse-racing term in the nineteenth century but now used in a much wider sense, is typical of his effort to relate words to the philosophy of the era, to clarify the relationship between this "propagandistic glorification of strength" (p. 47) and his earlier paragraphs on the *Charm of quantitative Experience*.

The third section, *the Dangers of letting down the Bars*, deals largely with the consequent uncertainties of word meanings and even of word forms, the use of *éclaircir* for *éclaircir*, for example. In this section we also find mention of a proposed gender change affecting some 200 words.

In the final section on *Speech Creators and Users* Herr Knauer deals with the gradual vulgarization of specialized words from the sciences, medicine, sport, government, etc. Not only do magazines and newspapers aid in this dissemin-

nation but we also have the texts of the Larousse and Armand Colin collections and—since the war—the *Que sais-je?* books.

Professor Knauer fears the real danger expressed in Audiat's parody of the classic motto: "l'honnête homme, au vingtième siècle, doit avoir 'des obscurités' de tout" (p. 59) but he also recognizes the French genius for vulgarization.

Nowhere in the text does Herr Knauer indicate the source of the words he has listed. Pages 65–92 of *Vulgarfrançais* are, however, devoted to a wordlist which defines all words not explained in the text, in the Sachs-Villatte or Petit Larousse (1947 edition) dictionaries. The explanations also indicate the source of the word although Professor Knauer is careful to warn us that these are not necessarily first appearances. This section can, if the reader wishes, become a profitable and interesting review of questions of vocabulary.

Herr Knauer devotes an early paragraph to the development of words that correspond to normal growth. Among them we find *ailier* (wing, in soccer), *machinique* (mechanical, characterizing our civilization), *cérèbration*, *bombage* ("crowning" a road), *service portuaire* (harbor service), *bonhomme* (one of the herd) all words formed along normal and traditional lines and readily understandable in context.

To them we might add *réimpermeabilisation* from our own experience. Although it is not found in dictionaries, its meaning is instantly clear when seen in the shop window of a store specializing in rainwear. *Plafonner* would seem to belong here not only in the meaning given in *Mansion*, "to go as high as possible in an airplane," but also, as in *Petit Larousse*, "to reach top speed in an automobile." Herr Knauer makes no claim to completeness.

In the same paragraph Professor Knauer notes the acceptance of dialect words into standard speech: *rescapé*, first used for the survivors of a 1906 Pas-de-Calais mine disaster, is a Picard form which has largely replaced both *réchappé* and *survivant*.

Among the active suffixes Knauer notes *-er*, *-isme* and *-iste*. He lists more than a hundred words, most of them now acceptable, in these categories, e.g. *cégliste* (member of the Confédération Générale du Travail, CGT), *garagiste*, *mots-croisiste*—we should perhaps add *stoppiste*, a recognized term for "hitch-hiker" although *auto-stoppeur* is also found—*absentéisme*, *grégarisme*, *mazouter* (to take on fuel), *permanenter* (to give a "permanent"), *doucer* (soften up, sweeten up "une femme" e.g.), etc.

Learned prefixes such as *néo-*, *télé-*, *auto-*, *mono-*, *anti-* are of frequent use in addition to the more common *in-* (*im-*, *ir*), *dé(s)-* and *re-*: *autopunition*, *auto-cuiseur*, *téléspectateur*, *anti-écrouleur*, *inemployable*, *inespoir*, *inheureux*.

Word compounding is not an old French custom, some of the attempts of the sixteenth century *Pléiade* to the contrary notwithstanding. Many compounds exist today, some already venerable, others of more recent formation: *nature-citerne*, *décret-loi*, *roman-fleuve*, *fermeture-éclair*, *assurance-chômage*, etc. Some, *autorail*, *autoroute*, *cyclotourisme*, e.g., drop the hyphen. Compounds with the verbal element first are common: *compte-tours*, *pare-choc*, *chauffe-eau*, etc. A recent furniture advertisement quoted by Knauer (p. 34) tells of a *fauteuil-club* and of two *fauteuils coin de feu* which

in spring can become a *petit canapé deux places*.

This compounding and the adoption of foreign compounds seem to be gaining increasing acceptance as evidenced in the fiftieth anniversary edition (1956) of the *Petit Larousse: libre-service* (self-service), *best-seller*, *pin-up*, *stock-car*, *surprise-party*, etc.

Ignorance and ambition can produce linguistic monsters such as *carnipain* (bread eater) modeled on *carnivore* where the first element has been understood as the "eating" root or *hydropêtre* (a priest-hater) which uses *hydrophobe* as its model with a similar misunderstanding. The mechanical broom, *anticrobe*, seems to have derived its name from the punster who remarked that he was afraid not only of *microbes* but of *crobes tout entiers*.

The appearance of the speaking movie gave rise to a host of words combining *seeing* and *hearing* stems: *visouir*, *vidouir*, *ouïvoir*, *écouïvoir*, etc. (p. 38).

The use of abbreviations such as *P.T.T.*, *T.S.F.*, *S.N.C.F.* and even *D.C.A.* is hardly novel but the practice of pronouncing initials as words is relatively recent. One then tends to forget that the word does represent initials as in *radar*. If the capital letters remain, as in *l'URSS*, *l'ONU*, we are more prone to remember. This tendency is not confined to French; we foreign language teachers are given to speaking proudly of the rapid development of the *FLES* program. Miss Lurline Simpson created quite a stir at the December, 1956, meeting of the AATF with a proposed *FLOP* (Foreign Languages for Older People) program.

Knauer recognizes the ephemeral and sarcastic nature of some coinages: *n'importe-quoi-macie*, *moindre-effortiste*, *jusqu'aboutiste*, and Voltaire's *cause-finalier*, for example. But he warns us that critical disapproval does not automatically put an end to a neologism. Many, scorned by the best people of the time, still live.

The paragraphs devoted to word-snobbery are of less interest than the examples of uncertainty in meaning which Professor Knauer offers in later pages. Both derive in part from the disease Malherbe thought he had cured early in the seventeenth century: a fondness for synonyms.

Some of these "synonyms" are mere mispronunciations: *tête d'oreiller* for *taie d'oreiller*, *il faut mieux* for *il vaut mieux*, others indicate a misunderstanding of the term: *auspice* for *aspect*, *inanimité* for *inanité*, still others may be synonyms for some senses of a word but not for all: *décimer* for *détruire*, *dépister* for *dérouter*.

We were intrigued by a discussion of the correct plural form of the sentence, "*la fête bat son plein*." The plural should be carefully avoided. Why? Because the correct form, "*les fêtes battent son plein*," would be laughable. *Battre son plein* refers to the sound of the unmuffled drum and has nothing to do with a possessive. Such is the force of widespread misunderstanding, however, that the correct form is to be avoided. A similar force is at work in the gradual contamination of *erremets*, defined in the 1905 *Petit Larousse* as *procédés habituels*, by *erreur*. The 1937 *Petit Larousse*, although noting the use as *abus*, gives *erreurs habituelles* as one definition.

Despite its interest for the informed reader, *Vulgarfranzösisch* holds little promise for French lexicographers. It makes no claims to completeness nor originality. Most of its illustrations are drawn from journalistic columns to

which the lexicographer should refer directly.

As a philosophical treatise on *inquiétude* in language the opus fails to distinguish between mere ineptitude and purposeful coinage. More items like Valéry's use of *monodéisme* for *idée fixe* would offer more credible proof of the thesis.

If Professor Knauer's purpose was to prove that modern French, like Vulgar Latin, accepts newcomers with the breezy camaraderie of a counterman in a second-rate diner, we needed no convincing. We recall all too well the *fillicanon* (girl shot from cannon) of the March, 1955, *Tout Savoir*.

French, like our own language, is growing democratically and people, en masse, have little respect for rules and traditions, especially those they do not understand.

ALFRED M. WILCOX

Ursinus College

Collegeville, Pennsylvania

Atlas of World History. Edited by R. R. PALMER; Rand McNally & Co., New York, 1957; pp. 216; Price \$5.00.

It is fully as essential for the linguist to possess a general perspective of history and geography as it is for the social scientist to be acquainted with the fundamental facts of language. Without a grasp of the historical-geographical factors that have dictated the rise, fall and development of languages, we of the language world will have only an incomplete and distorted view of our own subject.

Hence this book, produced by as fine a team of historians as it is possible to gather in our country today, and presented in the impeccable form characteristic of the publishers, is recommended for both reading and reference to all who are engaged in the teaching of languages, both classical and modern.

The world's history, from the dawn of man to the year 1957, is presented in a series of accurate maps, most of which are in color, accompanied by one- or two-page commentaries which are a miracle of concision coupled with high scholarship.

After a brief discussion of the science of cartography accompanied by samples of ancient and medieval maps, the book takes up in detail the ancient world, medieval Europe, modern Europe, the development of Asia, Africa and America, and concludes with the twentieth century and the outcome of the Second World War. No phase of political, economic or military history is overlooked. Religion, too, is well presented (though we miss a map of the medieval expansion of Islam), as witnessed by "The Journeys of Paul," "Expansion of Christianity," "Established Churches and Religious Minorities about 1600." Reference might perhaps have been made to the cult of Mithra, which rivalled early Christianity.

Language is not neglected. A detailed and accurate map and commentary show the languages of Europe in the 19th century, while frequent references to the interplay of language and political events appear throughout. A map of world languages would perhaps have been in order, particularly at this time when the relative importance of languages is undergoing a profound transformation.

The Bibliography and Index are excellent and complete. Special Appendices illustrate the growth of population of

selected countries and cities from the 13th century to the present, vital statistics, immigration and emigration, and such economic features as the production of petroleum and coal, shipping and railway mileage.

All in all, the book is worth many times its price. To

those of us who do not believe in studying or teaching our subject in a vacuum, it will prove a godsend.

MARIO A. PEI

Columbia University

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Even when in a primitive community incidents are reported by help of language, we have not to do primarily with a communication of thought, but with the sociable relation which the reporter brings about by his words. And even where there is this intercourse by words of mouth, the words alone do not tell the whole tale—the context, the circumstances, the whole situation and relation between the two interlocutors, aid the understanding of the story.

—OTTO JESPERSEN

* * *

Effrontery, linguistic complacency—such traits, we are told, do not suit our new role of global leadership. Even the appearance of them is to be avoided if possible in a nervous, easily resentful world, parts of which accuse us of cultural imperialism. Our indulgence of linguistic and cultural isolationism long after we professed to abandon political isolationism is, in the watchful eyes of other peoples, a suspicious paradox. No question about it, a great many foreigners understand English; but what they do not understand is America's evident ignorance of the fact that ethnic symbols and sympathies and aspirations defy translation and must be directly grasped by sufficient knowledge of a foreign tongue.

—WILLIAM RILEY PARKER

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FOREIGN LANGUAGES FOR TEACHERS—French—Spanish

The University of Florida, at Gainesville, will offer a Summer Workshop for In-Service Teachers of French and Spanish from June 17th to August 8th, 1958.

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